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PEABODY JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

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PRINCIPLES OF AMERICAN SECONDARY EDUCATION

By

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PEABODY JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

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THE ITALIANS AND THEIR SCHOOLS

CHARLES E. LITTLE
George Peabody College for Teachers

II. THE NEW SECONDARY SCHOOLS

A shining example of the Renaissance schools was that of Vittorino da Feltre (1378-1446) who was invited to establish a school for the nobility at Mantova (Mantua). To this school a few of the friends of the aristocratic pupils were admitted. Vittorino devised a greatly enriched and humanistic curriculum which has won for him the title "the first modern schoolmaster." The secondary schools of Italy have in general continued along the same lines as laid down by that Renaissance master; and there have been few innovations and fewer attempts at multiplying secondary schools either of the old sort or of the new, until the stirring days of a revival of national interest in the nineteenth century. The liberal movement in Italy, known as the *Risorgimento,* dating approximately from 1820-1870, was a modern Renaissance and created that historic idealism which spread to learning, to politics, to philosophy, and to education. Under the leadership of Giuseppe Mazzini (1805-1872), Giuseppe Garibaldi (1807-1882), and Camillo Benso, Conte di Cavour (Count Cavour, 1810-1861), the Kingdom of Sardinia, which included Sardinia, Savoy (Savoia), Nice (Nizza), and Piedmont (Piemonte), strove to create above all things a free united Italy. Count Cavour repeatedly put the freedom of the people above everything else, but tried also if possible to assure a free church in a free state, those two factors in the nation then and now almost irreconcilable.

But unlike the vigorous reforms and complete provision for elementary education, there were very few modifications of secondary education until quite recent times. After political unity had been achieved, there came sterility of thought and slacking of enthusiasm for the spread of higher education. Only with the new era of the twentieth century has increased attention been given to higher education and to the new kinds of secondary schools, as well as to the preparation of teachers on more democratic lines and with more vital application of their scholarship to modern national needs.

Completely adhering to Italian nationalism, Croce and Gentile with their historic idealism began the reform of all the schools by a new spirit of thought. They and their successors have in the last ten years given a new outlook to secondary and higher education. These reforms have been continued and strengthened by a series of able ministers of education, leaders in the world of history and thought and education: Benedetto Croce, minister 1920-1922; Giovanni Gentile, 1922-1925; Casati, 1925; Pietro Fedele, 1925-1928; Belluzzo, 1928-1930; Balbino Giuliano, 1930-1932; and now Francesco Ercole has taken up the task, appointed by Il Duce Mussolini and King Victor Emmanuel III in July, 1932.

1. The Throes of Liberty and Enlightenment

The Austrians were still in Venetia when Cavour died in 1861, and the Papacy still held Rome. But the Boncompagni law of 1848 and the Casati law of 1859 had both begun the leaven of educational reform in the province of Piedmont, while the capital of the Kingdom of Sardinia was still there at Torino (usually called *Turin*, ancient *Taurasia* of the *Taurini*, a Ligurian-Celtic tribe). The decay of Italy in the eighteenth century had left the country helpless in the grip of the Austrians; and, therefore, the *Risorgimento* is all the more marked because liberty and union were both strenuously opposed by Austria and the Papacy as well as by the Bourbons ruling Sicily and southern Italy from Naples.

Charles Albert (Carlo Alberto) who was in full sympathy with all these liberalizing tendencies in government and in education became king of Sardinia in 1831, reigning till 1848 at Turin which was the capital of the Kingdom of Sardinia from 1720 to 1861. His liberal principles enlisted Milano (usually called Milan) in Lombardy, Venice (the ancient *Venetia, Venezia* of the Italians), and even Rome, which for a brief period became a republic in 1848 under Mazzini and Garibaldi, as Venice also did under Daniele Manin (1804-1857).

But the Austrians at Custozza (1848) and at Novara (1849) shattered the rising hopes of these patriots and their followers. Charles Albert had been disappointed in the strength of his army, because all the chief centers of Italy were too busy driving out their local despots and establishing new republics to come to the help of his Sardinians and Piedmontese. He, therefore, abdicated his throne in favor of his son, Victor Emmanuel II (1849-1878), but he had long before granted his subjects a liberal constitution on democratic principles, which Victor Emmanuel accepted and resolutely maintained.

As early as 1832 Mazzini, descended from a well-to-do family of Genoa, had organized the society called *Giovine Italia* (Young Italy), who drew his inspiration from Dante and shed it abroad as the creed for Italian unity and

Italian social progress. Mazzini's followers were not lawless conspirators, but young intellectuals whom he inspired by his fiery zeal and patriotic eloquence.

Garibaldi was born at Nizza (the ancient *Nicaea*, now Nice, having joined France along with Savoy in 1860). For some part in an insurrection he was forced to flee to South America, but was back in Italy for the uprisings of 1848. Again exiled, he returned in 1854 to win all hearts by his fiery deeds of patriotism quite in keeping with Mazzini's patriotic addresses. Garibaldi and his famous "Thousand Red Shirts" sailed from Genoa in 1860 for Sicily, marched on Palermo, and conquered the whole of Sicily during June. With 4,000 followers he then set sail to conquer Naples (August, 1860), after which all of Italy except Rome and Venetia voted to join Victor Emmanuel, who was crowned king of Italy in February, 1861, when the first Italian parliament met at Turin where the capital remained until 1865.

If Mazzini and Garibaldi were the motive power of these marvelous times, Cavour was the organizer and regulator. He was of a noble Piedmont family and served Victor Emmanuel ably as minister from 1850 to his death in 1861. Under the Boncompagni and Casati laws he suppressed the Papacy and the Catholic schools in Piedmont, but his chief work was political. He made an alliance with France in the Crimean War and at the peace congress of 1856 made an appeal to the whole of Europe in behalf of the aspirations of Italy. Still in alliance with France, using Savoy and Nice as pledges of possible payment, he made war on the Austrians in which the Sardinians and French were completely victorious at Magenta and Solferino (June 4 and 24, 1859). But by the treaty of Villafranca only Lombardy was added to the Kingdom of Sardinia, through the sharp practice of Napoleon III who still left Venetia to the Austrians.

Mazzini had with all his heart wanted a republic, but bowing to the national will he reluctantly accepted a monarchy under the leadership of the liberal house of Savoy, represented so nobly by Charles Albert and Victor Emmanuel, as a satisfactory pledge for the future. Garibaldi, on the other hand, hated Cavour and all his methods, calling him a cold and calculating schemer. Cavour always a disciple of the possible said that while he could not make poetic speeches like Mazzini nor perform miracles like Garibaldi, he could make Italy; and he did.

But after the death of Cavour new territory was added in 1866 when Prussia in alliance with Italy made the Austrians cede Venetia and the citizens, by a plebiscite, had voted to join the Kingdom of Italy. Rome, the logical capital of united Italy and the hope of social and cultural unity, was now the last obstacle to complete territorial unity, being still held by the Papacy, assisted by a French army. Garibaldi had been impatient to attack Rome and, making the attempt against sober advice, was defeated by Italian

troops at Aspromonte (1862) and again by French and Papal troops at Mentana within fifteen miles of Rome (1867). But soon the tide of sentiment for complete unity overbore the Papacy; the Italian army without serious opposition entered the Eternal City with the enthusiasm of most Romans on September 20 ("Venti Settembre"), 1870. All Italy was at last united, in aspiration at least.

The northeastern districts, *Italia Irridenta,* finally came back into the fold at the end of the World War by the success of Italian arms at Vittorio Veneto in 1918.

The struggles for unity and freedom had been nobly led and nobly waged by the citizens. There had been much rancor and hate, but much generous aspiration. In Piedmont, Lombardy, and the northwest, the foundations of educational progress were laid, as well as political unity and freedom. The Boncompagni law of 1848 and the Casati law of 1859, though applying at first to Piedmont alone, was soon extended to nearly the whole of Italy after Florence (*Firenze,* earlier *Fiorenza,* the ancient *Florentia*) had become the capital of the Kingdom of Italy (1865-1871). These two educational laws became the foundation and turning point in all subsequent school legislation. After the unification of the whole peninsula in the Kingdom of Italy in 1870 and with the capital changed to Rome, the state itself was in a position to undertake more definite and uniform tasks in cultural and educational fields.

2. Advance and Retreat

The philosopher Vincenzo Cuoco (1770-1822) had furnished a sound statement of education as the basis of Italian aspirations, national consciousness, and civic greatness: "Without education the best laws remain useless. These laws may be written down, but only education can imprint them in the hearts of the citizens. Only education can restore to us our ancient greatness and our ancient glory." (Report to Murat at Naples, 1809.)

It was this inner freedom springing from education upon which Cuoco and Mazzini and Cavour and Victor Emmanuel always insisted as fundamental for securing liberty and union; it was this upon which they depended for responsible government, based upon the intelligent consent of the governed, in the plebiscites of 1860, when the duchies of Modena, Parma, and Florence with all Tuscany, and Romagna of the Papal states voted for union with the Kingdom of Sardinia, while Savoy and Nice voted to join France. In the same year the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, whose capital was Naples, and two of the remaining Papal states, the Marches and Umbria, also voted for union. The same was true in the plebiscite of 1866 when Venetia voted to join the new Kingdom of Italy; and again when, last of all, Rome in 1870 by an overwhelming majority of voters entered the Kingdom of Italy. The educational, as well as the political, ideal was finely expressed in Charles Albert's

defiant words to the Austrians in 1848: "Italia farà da sè" (Italy will act for herself).

This enthusiasm and liberal spirit became fully operative in schools for the masses. Elementary education founded upon the Boncompagni and Casati laws for the Kingdom of Sardinia was energetically extended from Piedmont to the whole Kingdom of Italy from 1870 to 1890 and then with rapid acceleration since 1890 to the present, as related in the previous chapter.

But the course of secondary education has not been so animated. After the first advance there was reaction and then stagnation. This was not so much because there were no good secondary schools, but because the *licei* adhered to the traditional classical education. They held the field in giving education to the privileged few, not only before 1870 but until the past ten years. There was no advance at flood-tide as with the elementary schools, but rather they continued to drift at the same efficient level without vital relation to the whole new life of the nation. Elementary education was popular from the start, secondary education remained aristocratic until the Gentile reform. Besides the classical *licei,* all other education at the secondary level was almost wholly neglected.

The sterility of thought and the materialistic impulses came as opposition to the clericals and all their ways. It was the mark of a genuine Italian citizen to be opposed to everything for which in the older days the Austrians, the Jesuits, and the Bourbons had stood, whether good or bad. The new policy of the democratic state, dominant after 1876, and all this anticlerical feeling produced positivism in philosophy and pedagogy, realism in art, and too often skepticism in life. It was left for the Gentile programs to attempt to bring instruction back to the live sources of culture, to the classics, to problems of real interest in actual life and therefore to be truly fruitful in molding the personality of the pupil, his critical spirit, his aesthetic taste, his consciousness as a citizen and a man. (Ugo Spirito, Educational Yearbook for 1924, p. 346.)

From the first much had been left to private initiative, in the elementary school as well as in the secondary. Even during the early days of the *Risorgimento* an increasing group of citizens both from the aristocracy and the cultivated middle-classes fostered cultural and educational enterprises. This free initiative of private citizens did much to arouse national consciousness toward achieving material unity by moral and intellectual regeneration. Elementary schools were made available for the masses and remade whole communities of the lower orders into citizens worthy of a free people. Of these numerous private schools a model institution continued to flourish at Florence till 1848, all of them opposed bitterly by the Austrians, the Jesuits, and the reactionaries. Infant schools all over Italy, like that at Cremona opened in 1829 by Ferrante Aporti, the cleric (1791-1858), and the many

private elementary schools in Naples of this same period attest the powerful influence of private groups on elementary education, in spite of opposition from the Papacy, the Bourbons, and the several despotic governments. But private initiative was more restricted in secondary education, because the several governments devoted their main effort to higher education and clung to the conservative tradition.

Carlo Boncompagni in his law of 1848 had divided secondary education into classical and technical. Experimental colleges were established at Turin, Genoa, and Nizza (Nice), comparable to the technical schools which began to grow rapidly only after 1890, intended for students not destined to enter classical studies. Led by Vincenzo Gioberti (1801-1852) a group of earnest minds founded in 1849 at Turin the *Società d'Istruzione e di Educazione* (Instruction and Education Society) with a *Giornale* (Journal) which carried forward these liberal aims until they culminated in the Casati law of 1859. Under that law private schools were encouraged but required to give proof of capacity and good morals, in the interest of preserving the national aims.

A normal school had already been started in 1844 at Turin with Ferrante Aporti as director, and in 1847 there was created the *Regia Segretaria di Stato per l'Istruzione Pubblica* (Royal secretary of state for public instruction). Hundreds of other private enterprises arose: for agriculture, for the special protection of children and women, for the higher culture as expressed in literary and learned societies. Most of these liberal movements were in the north, but a notable exception developed in the south at Naples where there were profound jurists and learned societies under the leadership of such famous teachers as Basilio Puoti (1782-1847), Francesco de Sanctis (1817-1883), and Bertrando Spaventa (1817-1883). Some of these private enterprises bore on elementary and rural education, only a very few bore with any wide extension on secondary education. The secondary schools continued to be much as they were in 1859 under the provisions of the Casati law until the noted reforms of Gentile in 1923.

3. The New Spirit and the New Schools

Provision was made in the Casati law of 1859 for secondary education which governed the fundamental lines of education both elementary and secondary until the Gentile reform of 1922-1923. Secondary education was broadened in intent by Casati, the aim being to give technical instruction a fair place alongside of the classical course. We have seen that a few experimental schools were established, but their existence was only faintly felt until after 1890, while nine normal schools of secondary rank were established for men and nine of the same rank for women to train the teachers of elementary schools. These normal schools had a very checkered and uncertain career, drastically changed by the Gentile reforms.

The Coppino law of 1877 fixed compulsory education for children six years of age. In 1886 the state extended control over the smaller municipalities stabilizing elementary education and creating a new demand for secondary education in those same municipalities. The Orlando law of 1904 provided elementary courses in two grades of four years for everyone, plus two years for those not going on to secondary studies, and increasing compulsory education for children from those six years of age to those twelve years of age. The Daneo-Credaro law of 1911 gave more state help and not only spread elementary schools but secondary schools also.

With all this preliminary preparation the conditions were ripe when the Fascist regime arrived in 1922 to embark upon a national system of state secondary schools of a popular sort alongside the old aristocratic *ginnasio-liceo* which the majority of Italians thought and still think the most effective institution for the selection of the directing class of society. That school fortunately was left to continue as the most characteristic type of secondary school in the national tradition. But there has been a remarkable development, particularly in the past ten years, in the technical and vocational aspects of education at the secondary level, which was only hinted at in 1859. The lower middle-class has, by its demands, succeeded in transforming these schools so as to meet more nearly the needs of their lives and the careers of their children. The technical school formerly served merely as preparation for the higher technical institute, but has now been transformed into courses with an end in themselves. Its function now is to train persons for the minor professions, trades, etc. These technical schools, public and private, in 1871 numbered only 62, but by 1909 they had risen to 97 and in 1928 to 338, with an enrollment of over 70,000.

But the technical institutes for the higher technical instruction too have rapidly increased since 1870 and have begun to grow in southern Italy also since 1880. They numbered, public and private, 59 in 1909, had risen to 218 in 1928, with an enrollment of nearly 40,000.

I found teachers, even those in the *liceo*, very enthusiastic over the new secondary schools quite as much as for the older types. Professor Anna Passigli-Piazza who teaches English in the classical *Regio Liceo* "Torquato Tasso," gave me a general sketch of the essential grades and purposes of secondary schools as follows:

1. *Liceo Classico* of three years, following *ginnasio* of five years, making a total of eight years (eight forms, eight grades) for the classical school leading to entrance to the university.

2. *Liceo Scientifico* with a course of four years, following the *ginnasio* of four years or other courses regarded as equivalent. This school leads to the university, preparing for mathematics and engineering.

3. *Istituto Magistrale* with two years following the *ginnasio* of five years and meant for the training of elementary teachers (masters and mistresses of schools). Students in these schools are entirely girls due to the fact that only women are teachers in the elementary schoolroom, though theoretically boys could be admitted. Signora Piazza and other officials declare this kind of school had been (as the *scuola normale* from 1859) very unsatisfactory and had been subjected to a great deal of discussion and successful modification. This school does not lead to the university, nor do any of the following. Only the *liceo classico* and the *liceo scientifico* lead by direct paths to the university.

4. *Istituto Tecnico* prepares boys and girls for business and surveying; as accountants and for the higher aspects of business and agricultural life.

5. *Istituto Commerciale* prepares for business and trade and the active pursuits of barter and exchange and commercial life of the practical sort.

6. *Scuola di Avviamento al Lavoro* (lower *scuola tecnica* or *scuola complementare* till 1928) prepares boys and girls for smaller places—what we call jobs in connection with business or commerce, as clerks and apprentices, and various smaller positions. Signora Piazza was enthusiastic about this school.

7. *Scuola Industriale* to prepare boys as mechanics or skilled workers in factories is strictly a vocational school for boys only.

8. *Scuola Professionale* is also a vocational school for both boys and girls, to fit them for different clerical positions as secretaries and stenographers and the like.

The reforms instituted in 1923 by the minister of education, Giovanni Gentile, had to deal with inherited forms of a complex organism. The Gentile reform was too wisely introduced to attempt a complete revolution. The value lies not in changes of structure and law, but rather in the new spirit infused. Gentile, himself a profound philosopher and historian, but above all an experienced educator, expressed the essentials of the proposed reform in 1922. He was appointed minister of education in October, 1922, and shortly afterwards the government granted him unconditional powers which he was careful not to abuse but succeeded in completely renovating the whole Italian school system in a few months. From 1859, he said, many laws governed the Italian school system, now it needed to discover its own law. Examinations must be such as to show that students know how to study, think, and reflect. Proper financial support must be increased, but used with economy. Private schools must be allowed to develop but under state regulation. More care is needed in the preparation of teachers. And the elementary school was to be an end in itself in three stages: *asilo infantile* of three years followed by elementary school of five years in two stages (3 years plus 2 years).

The normal school though of secondary rank for training elementary teachers was transformed into the *istituto magistrale,* now more like the

classical *ginnasio-liceo*. The older normal school and that form of training teachers went back to the period of positivism and the anti-clerical secularism so prevalent in the latter part of the nineteenth century. Positivism undertook the task of national and human regeneration by means of material science, and teachers became a sort of secular priesthood. They finally denied all value to the wisdom of childhood and to the traditional experience which speaks through the mouth of the peasant or of the humble woman of the people.

Other secondary education also was transformed by a new spirit rather than a drastic revolution. A single entrance examination to all secondary schools of first grade (*ginnasio, istituto magistrale, istituto tecnico*) and a solid classical foundation in all the lower courses were made fundamental features for advancement to higher secondary schools. The normal school and the technical school which had become more and more unsatisfactory were completely transformed. "The new seven-year teachers' training institute *(istituto magistrale)*, which took the place of both the old complementary school for women (three years) and the normal school (three years), has turned out to be a little masterpiece of organization and pedagogical perfection, which will mark a memorable date in the spiritual restoration of the country." (Ernesto Codignola, Educational Yearbook for 1929, p. 402.)

The new technical school was no longer to be preparatory to the higher technical institute but must aim at completing the training for minor occupations and trades through studies with immediate application.

The higher secondary schools were made to lead out of the single trunk of the preparatory classical course: *ginnasio,* 5 years; *istituto magistrale,* 4 years after 3 in *ginnasio* or equivalent; *liceo classico,* 3 years after 5 in *ginnasio;* and *liceo scientifico,* 4 years after 4 in *ginnasio* or equivalent; while higher vocational courses were to come after the lower course of the institute.

The spirit infused into the secondary schools by the Gentile reform was its most notable achievement. The school had become mechanical in teaching and endowed with exasperating uniformity in administration by a few nimble-minded bureaucrats. By the reform classes were limited to thirty-five pupils, scholars of vital power and social interests were sought as directors and teachers, the system of examinations radically changed to be controlled by the state, all with the hope of restoring personality and organism to the schools again.

The whole intent of the Gentile reform has been to substitute a formative education that enriches the intellectual and moral personality of the pupils by proper studies and experiences in place of the old informational and realistic teaching which aimed at imparting instrumental knowledge and abstract technique. This new educational doctrine, with firm faith in giving secondary education of various kinds to larger and larger numbers of Italian youth, has resulted in creating many successful new types of secondary schools. Both

public and private secondary schools are promoted in living and fruitful competition, just as in the case of the elementary schools.

As in the public elementary schools, tuition is entirely free, I think, for most of the technical and vocational schools. In the *ginnasio-liceo* and the *liceo scientifico* pupils pay annual enrollment fees in addition to fees for matriculation, examination, and diploma. But even in these schools which lead directly to the university exemption from fees and scholarships enable most of the needy pupils of high intelligence to meet the cost of this select education.

Teachers in the secondary schools as well as those in elementary are no longer appointed merely on the strength of a degree, but are selected by competitive examination. (Ugo Spirito, Educational Yearbook for 1924, p. 347.)

For the training of higher teachers the *Scuola Normale Superiore,* founded in the University of Pisa by the Napoleonic regime in 1813, closed in 1815, reorganized 1847, has exerted and still exerts a profound influence on Italian education. (Ernesto Codignola, Educational Yearbook for 1930, p. 354.)

Gentile in 1923 reorganized and redirected the Higher Teachers' Training Institutes for women at Florence and at Rome. He also established a third institute at Messina to which students from Sicily and Calabria have begun to flock. These institutes for women had begun to acquire university status without being integral parts. They were hybrid in character, half university and half high school. Gentile transformed them into university function and grade with the special duty of preparing higher teachers and fed naturally now from the secondary *istituti magistrali* and from university students aspiring to educational service. (Ernesto Codignola, Educational Yearbook for 1929, pp. 418-419.) These institutes will be more specifically discussed in the next chapter.

Examinations on a new basis also have cleared up many confusions. The old system left confusion between a humanistic-liberal goal and the utilitarian-vocational goal. The former is regarded by Italians as the essential character of the institutions which prepare for higher studies, while the latter function belongs instead to special popular schools. There was also a confusion between public and private schools. State examinations have remedied many of these defects. Gentile followed the Croce law of 1921 in establishing examinations for a diploma (maturity examinations) only from technical institutes or teachers institutes to test professional fitness for entrance upon the chosen vocation. But the classical and scientific *licei* no longer grant diplomas at all because these maturity or graduating examinations have become a pure and simple test of admission to higher studies and not to a vocation. Examinations for both types of schools must be before a commission of professors who have not themselves prepared the students.

But the old system of examinations still applies to the crowded complementary schools, since they have an end in themselves and do not prepare for higher studies nor for the practice of a profession nor for admission to higher studies at the university.

The new system aims at testing the maturity and not the fragmentary training of candidates. Hence, admission from primary to secondary schools is by examination, founded upon the belief that, if the secondary schools are to be nurseries of formative training, the proper test of the pupils' maturity should be given by the teachers who are to receive, not the teachers who have prepared the pupils.

The organization of these schools and the housing of them exhibit a striking contrast in their combinations of old and new. In Verona I was impressed with the fine buildings which house their *istituto tecnico*. These new schools undoubtedly indicate the present intense interest in business efficiency for an industrial Italy. In several places I noticed there was much evidence of new things and attempts to improve the community by common effort exerted through schools and education. The high school, the technical school, the trade school, and the university are all conscious of a new demand and show this in the studies which pupils pursue as well as the new buildings which are being erected.

The *licei* on the other hand are usually in older and more medieval buildings with less of the special features of the more recent high schools. The *Regio Liceo* "Torquato Tasso" in the *Via Sicilia* in Rome, called after the great Italian poet, is in a very handsome stone structure which may be a hundred or even three hundred years old. It was probably not built for a school at all but was perhaps a palatial residence of some noble or merchant prince. This is situated, however, in a somewhat newer section of Rome on the Princian hill in what is known as the Ludovisi Quarter, and I judge is nearer one hundred years old than three hundred.

The *Liceo Scientifico* "C. Cavour," situated near *San Pietro in Vincoli* and named after the great statesman, occupies one wing of the school of engineering of the University of Rome and seems to be very much older and very much less adapted to adolescent boys and girls, because it has no playground like the fine courtyard of the "Torquato Tasso," while the rooms themselves are dingy and show every evidence of medieval dust and grime. I am not fully acquainted with the date of establishment of these two *licei* and the history of these two buildings, but the former seems far better adapted in its brightness and cheerfulness to the instruction of youth than does the second which presents a feeling of gloom and unattractiveness in its dark lecture halls.

The *Istituto Magistrale* "Margherita di Savoia" situated on the west side of the *Piazza Vittorio Emmanuele* is housed in a palatial building more like that of the "Torquato Tasso" both in age and appearance. I did not notice any

garden or courtyard, but the rooms have an air of elegance and refinement, befitting the young women and the dignity of the teacher's calling.

These secondary schools have been rather uniform in growth and purposes since the Gentile reform in 1923, with decreasing numbers or changes in these four exceptions:

(1) The *Licei Femminili* dwindled from an enrollment of 124 in 1923 to 49 in 1927, as a result of violent opposition from parents and gradually making all the *licei* coeducational by 1928.

(2) The *Istituti Magistrali* had 30,715 pupils in 1923 and the *Scuole Normali* only 4,911, a total of 35,626; the *Scuole Normali* were then suppressed in 1925.

(3) The *Scuole Complementari* with 74,655 pupils in 1922 and with 59,681 in 1928 were renamed *Scuole di Avviamento al Lavoro* henceforth.

(4) The *Istituti Nautici* dwindled from an enrollment of 3,372 pupils in 1923 to 1,072 in 1928.

Most of the secondary schools are well equipped with scientific collections and laboratories and with libraries, as below:

(a) Scientific Collections and Laboratories

Ginnasi-Licei	404
Licei Scientifici	99
Istituti Tecnici	564
Istituti Magistrali	178
Scuole Complementari	503
Total schools thus provided	1,748

(b) Libraries

Besides the incomparable 32 libraries of the 21 universities and the public libraries of large cities and of learned societies which contain ancient manuscripts, incunabula, rare volumes, general books, and periodicals (over 10,000,000 volumes and 1,500,000 readers), there are 193 provincial and communal libraries with similar collections (over 7,800,000 volumes and 700,000 readers), and 1,586 popular libraries accessible to the smallest secondary school in the remotest village (over 1,500,000 volumes and 1,600,000 readers, perhaps mainly children and general readers).

4. The Teachers and Their Teaching

Actual schoolroom practice and the personality of teachers as they present subjects to their classes is even more important than the buildings they possess and the subjects they teach. Good teaching of an ordinary study outweighs poor teaching of a study supposed to have far superior value. The programs of study in the various secondary schools do, however, determine the scope of pedagogical skill and limit the scholarship of teachers to the actual studies in

the curriculum. My experience has been mainly confined to the *licei* and the *istituti magistrali* which I describe from direct observation. The programs of the other schools and the teaching in them are, therefore, given only in summary.

All of the *licei* are coeducational. In the old days there were *licei* for girls and *licei* for boys, but with the growth of the new schools offering professional and vocational opportunities the attendance of girls decreased so much in the *licei* that all of these institutions have now been made coeducational. This tendency was emphasized by Signora Piazza and by Signori Oliviero, Grossi, Vignola and, in fact, by every one whom I questioned on coeducation.

In the *liceo* it is assumed that every pupil will have to study some Latin no matter whether it is the *liceo classico* or the *liceo scientifico* and for the first four years of all but the vocational schools. This is regarded as a mark of a really cultivated and genteelly educated Italian. It is regarded also as the indispensable instrument of understanding his own language, literature, and the deeper meanings of his civilization. Quite naturally, therefore, both types of the *licei,* which are the preparatory schools for the university, invariably require from five to eight years of Latin. It is assumed that no advanced study of university grade in preparation for a profession or a place in the intellectual and political life of the nation can dispense with Latin in the secondary schools. It is only in the other schools of a vocational or commercial or business nature that a concession is made where immediate and applied education is provided for the rank and file of the workers, while the leaders in national life must take their way through the *licei* and by way of Latin.

The program of the *liceo scientifico,* therefore, demands as much attention to Latin in the first few years as the *liceo classico.* The *Regio Liceo Scientifico* "C. Cavour" of Rome shows, for the year 1925-26 in a catalogue given me by the principal, Signore Oliviero, the following program of study and courses:

COURSE A.

Italian, four years.
Latin, four years.

1. Syntax, exercises, and simple translations.
2. Grammar, Tibullus, Ovid, and Caesar.
3. Syntax, exercises, translations, Catullus, Horace, Vergil, and Terence.
4. Grammar, exercises, translations, Ovid, Livy, and Vergil.

History, four years.
Philosophy, last two years.
Economics, last two years.
Mathematics, four years.
Physics, last three years.
French, four years.
Natural history, chemistry, and geography, four years.
Drawing or design, four years.

COURSE B.

B has the same course of study as in A except in the modern language department, where German replaces French. All the other subjects are practically the same except a variation in subject matter and of authors.

COURSE C.

C is a duplicate of A and B except in the modern language department, where English replaces French or German. All the other subjects are practically the same except a variation in subject matter and of authors.

At Florence more English is spoken than almost anywhere else on the continent. The British Institute, of which Professor Goad is director and Professor Guido Ferrando is headmaster, offers a great many courses in English as well as gives technical instruction preparing Italians for all kinds of professional and semi-professional positions.

Professor Ferrando from his favored position of knowledge and practice outlined for me the course of study in the *liceo classico* by giving a typical sequence of Latin (and Greek) authors. The following table will make his description clear:

Ginnasio (5 years)

1. Latin grammar and exercises.
2. Latin grammar and Nepos, Lives.
3. Latin grammar and Phaedrus, Fabulae; Caesar, Commentaries.
4. Latin grammar, Sallustius, Livius.
5. Vergil and Livius, and Latin grammar.
(Greek begins here in fifth year, which will be continued in *Liceo Classico.*)

Liceo Classico (3 years)

1. Horace's Odes and Cicero's Orations.
2. Horace's Epistles and Cicero's De Amicitia.
3. Lucretius; Quintilianus; Plautus; Tacitus.

Liceo Scientifico

Latin as in *Liceo Classico.*
Modern language—English or German or French instead of Greek.

At Rome I had very exceptional privileges in personally observing actual teaching, where I could note methods of instruction and the conduct of recitations.

At the "Torquato Tasso" I heard Professor Antonio Maria Cervi teach an advanced class in the last year of the course in Latin. The textbooks used were all of the brochure type, paper-backed volumes like ordinary cheap novels. This, of course, means that their textbooks are not expensive, probably no one costing more than eight to twelve lire (40 to 60 cents). In this class Professor Cervi's pupils had in their hands two volumes. One was Adolfo Gandiglio, *Nuovi Esercizi Latini, Volume I.* The other book was Gaetano Gigli,

Poetarum Scriptorumque Romanorum Exempla, published by R. Giusti, Livorno.

Professor Cervi was a most enthusiastic teacher of Latin literature. After receiving me and giving a courteous bow of greeting, he sprang in front of his class not pulling off his overcoat and only one glove. He began to expound the Latin text most vigorously, marching up and down through the aisles from front to back and across, making the whole circuit of the room several times. Frequently he would stop and suddenly call on one of the pupils to read a passage which he or she did in beautiful intonation and accent with intelligent pronunciation. After this would come a question; the pupil would be asked to discuss the meaning of the passage, which the pupil did also with fluency and intelligence. Then would follow another flow of eloquence on the part of Professor Cervi to be followed by the same request for recitation from the pupil singled out. He probably called on a half dozen pupils from the class of thirty or more during the hour, each one performing quite at length, enough to give a real test of his or her understanding. At the end of the hour definite word study was assigned for home preparation and discussion in later recitations. These assignments were made to individual students.

The authors included in the textbooks he was using represented various types and periods. There were selections from Cicero, from the rhetorical writings and the philosophical writings. And then suddenly the pupils were called upon to turn to a certain page in an entirely different part of the book to consider quite a different selection—Seneca or Vergil or Juvenal or Horace. I believe none of the historians were being used at the time, as neither Livy nor Tacitus was brought before the class. The idea seemed to be poetical themes and ethical ideals.

Occasionally throughout the recitation, but particularly toward the end of the hour, the pupils would ask questions and engage in discussion with Professor Cervi on some topic and answer back and forth. Sometimes other pupils would join in the discussion and occasionally a piece of humor would bring a laugh. But everything was very orderly and dignified and on a basis strictly intellectual, all with keen discussion and clear understanding.

These young boys and girls from sixteen to nineteen years of age seemed serious in their work but free and easy in the classroom and fearless in their discussion. Seemingly they knew their author and understood what it was all about and, therefore, were not afraid to discuss the big questions growing out of their texts. This thoroughness of teaching and scrupulous preparation on the part of pupils give a demonstration of the discipline to which this selected group of youngsters were being subjected. They realized that having got thus far they must stand a severe examination on leaving the school in order to be graduated and an equally severe examination to be admitted to a university, to prepare for a career in state or church or profession.

I also saw Professor Cervi teach a last-year class in advanced Greek where they were reading Pindar and the other lyric poets. Here the same brilliant and scintillating eloquence was exhibited on the part of the professor and the same thoroughness and familiarity with their Greek authors on the part of the pupils. The boys in the class numbered about twenty and the girls about ten; all alike showed the same easy knowledge of their texts and the same mastery in discussion. High-school boys and girls in our country would be appalled in the presence of Pindar.

The class in English taught by Signora Piazza was in the first-year of the "Torquato Tasso" with boys and girls from about ten to twelve years of age. They were reading English sentences comparable to our primers or first grade readers and were just about as fluent as our youngsters of six years would be in their first attempts at reading English. It should be noted that these Italian pupils would be at least five or six years older than our first grade pupils. We start our mother tongue in school much younger naturally; for these Italian boys and girls English was a foreign language. These young Italians reading English with a distinct Italian accent and with some peculiar pronunciations showed occasionally the usual more glaring mistakes, which are not unknown, however, in our own schools with our own youngsters.

After the practice in reading English there came a test on meaning and comprehension, Professor Piazza requesting an explanation of a whole paragraph and also the meanings of particular words. Then a pupil would be called to the board to write certain words and sentences. At this early period in the session (November, the second month of the study of English) the exercises were mainly in spelling rather than construction or formal grammar. The day that I was present the teacher chose numerals to work on. She would call a number in Italian and require the corresponding number to be written in English. The first pupil she happened to call up for this exercise was Bruno Mussolini (the son of the famous prime minister, Il Duce), who was very alert and intelligent and quick to see the mistakes in spelling when the teacher or other pupils objected to the spelling he had written. The nature of the mistakes was rather interesting, being in most cases what would be expected. For example, the Italian "due," meaning English "two," Bruno Mussolini spelled "twe." He had, of course, not quite mastered the form in English and was reminiscent of the Italian spelling, having built his spelling by analogy rather than exact and precise knowledge of the English.

The informality of discussions by all the pupils in this class showed them to be at ease as everywhere. There was absolutely no disorder, and every question and answer and all the discussions stuck to the point. There would be an occasional laugh at some witticism of the teacher or a pupil, but this was as quickly left behind for some pertinent discussion taken up with real intellectual vigor. This was typical, for this same classroom behavior and

attitude I found were quite general. The thoroughness of instruction and the keenness of intellectual seriousness was not performed in an austere or disagreeable atmosphere, but the relationship between teacher and pupils was easy and cordial.

The same kind of young pupils I saw also in the "Torquato Tasso" taught by Professor Giovanni Staderini in a Latin class. He must be fully sixty-five or seventy years old, but he was teaching Latin to beginners who were, I think, most of them between eight and ten years of age. I was very much impressed with this old gentleman who was a scholar of high repute, an author of the learned book on "The History and Monuments of the Appian Way," and evidently a highly trained scholar in the Latin language as well as his own native Italian; but he showed the keenest interest in these youngsters and the most helpful and understanding sympathy with their first steps in the ancient form of their mother tongue.

This connection between Latin and Italian makes it far easier for Italians to get the inner feeling of Latin and, therefore, also to master more quickly the outer form and the mechanics of construction than our pupils can possibly do in the same time or even with the same thoroughness. Professor Staderini was pretty nearly an ideal model of a learned and vivacious instructor of the very young taking their first steps in a foreign language. That language, however, happened to be richly associated with their own in vocabulary and to a lesser extent in spelling and to a still lesser extent in construction. All of these connections Professor Staderini was revealing to his young charges, not in pellmell confusion, but one at a time.

His way of starting was to give some short sentence to a boy or girl to pronounce and then he would begin discussion of the meaning. Then all at once he would begin to fire questions almost sternly at the pupils and give the pupils plenty of time to discuss, not merely to answer yes or no. It was remarkable what responses this teacher got. After the pupils had had their say, then the teacher would start again with another discussion followed by a volley of questions which the pupils in their turn would discuss rather than merely answer. These were very young pupils but I was greatly impressed with their thoughtful manner of taking class work and the eagerness with which they would stick to the point and not try to create diversions. They understood and appreciated the vivacious enthusiasm of their teacher's instruction and his playful austerity in cross-examining them by way of summary.

Before the class ended Professor Staderini had started a discussion which he had illustrated by a tabulation on the board, giving a list of a few Latin words which had come over into Italian, noting the changes in the spelling and meaning. After about half a dozen had been put on the board in as many lines, the teacher left the history of a word incomplete when the hour was

finished. When Professor Staderini gave the signal that the class was over, a little boy rose and asked him not to go until he had finished that line and developed the history of that word. His curiosity and his interest had been so aroused that he could not bear the suspense of leaving that exercise incomplete until the next day—or forever.

At the *Liceo Scientifico* "C. Cavour" the *preside* (principal), Signore Oliviero, very courteously gave me a printed course of study and permitted me to visit a class in beginning chemistry taught by a professor whose name I failed to get. He was questioning very rigorously on chemical nomenclature and demanding demonstrations at the blackboard, to see how well the pupils understood the meanings of the symbols as related to physical structure of metals and the different combinations of metals to produce different chemical substances.

There was a great deal more military precision throughout this school than I had noticed elsewhere, amounting at least to a very formal etiquette. When the *preside,* Professor Oliviero, Signora Piazza, and I entered the room, all the pupils rose and gave the Roman (Fascist) salute with extended right hand. The pupils remained standing respectfully until the *preside,* rather than the professor, gave the signal to be seated. There seemed to be much more formality in instruction in this class than I had noticed before and very slight use was made of the apparatus for experiments, doubtless because the nature of these first lessons was such as to call for blackboard more and apparatus less than would be true later. There was not exactly stiffness, but there was great formality and seemingly less spontaneous active thinking than I had seen in the language classes at the "Torquato Tasso."

Our next visit was to the normal school in the *Piazza Vittorio Emmanuele,* the *Istituto Magistrale* "Margherita di Savoia" (named after the queen-mother), where the pupils were all girls in training for elementary-school teachers. Theoretically boys could be admitted, but none were there and no applicants were expected to come for the reason that practically no teachers in the elementary schools are men. The high-school teachers are prepared by courses or teachers' institutes in the university or in the *Scuola Normale Superiore* at Pisa, as are also the administrators of all the schools, elementary as well as secondary.

The principal of this school was Signora Romano, who took me to observe a class in Italian literature taught by a young woman who was only a substitute teacher. As she developed a lesson in Dante, she told me that she was giving an introduction to the new movements in the Middle Ages, the main theme of the course being a *"Preludio di Rinascimento"* (Eve of the Renaissance). She would have passages read by the pupils, would then discuss the suggestions growing out of a passage, and would call upon pupils to give a discussion of some topic probably already assigned before-

hand. They lay great stress on reading aloud and rhythmically, so as to enjoy the music and cadence of Dante's verse *(terza rima)*. They love the sound of poetry for its music. As the pupils would read I noticed that the teacher and also Signora Piazza, who had accompanied me, would be almost chanting along with the reader in evident enjoyment of the sound of Dante's rhythm.

One of the young ladies, who was reciting on some topic relating mainly, I think, to Dante's life, had some occasion to mention the famous church *Santa Croce* at Florence, but by a mere verbal lapse named a well-known church at Rome, *Santa Croçe in Gerusalemme*. At this, of course, everybody had a good laugh, the young lady herself joining in quite good humoredly.

I heard the teacher and the pupils also mention Longfellow several times. The Italians regard Longfellow very highly because of his fine translations of Dante and his knowledge of their literature. This is indicated notably at Amalfi, southeast of Naples, where a bronze tablet commemorates his visit to that city and his stay at the Cappucini Convent which is now a most picturesque hotel. Signora Piazza said that Longfellow's translations of Dante were the best by reason of his preserving almost the very word order as well as the rhythm and the verse form of the *terza rima* of Dante's original. She could quote long passages in the original Italian and also in English from Longfellow.

The teacher, however, knew little English, and while she could read some of Longfellow's translations she could not venture to speak it. When I asked if she read any other of the English poets, she said, "Very little," and asked me what I would suggest. All this she was asking me through Signora Piazza as interpreter. I asked her if she had any knowledge of Sidney Lanier, whom, I explained to her, I considered one of our greatest American poets, certainly ranking along with Longfellow. She asked what she should read in Sidney Lanier and I had an interesting time telling her, in as good Italian as I could muster, to read the "Marshes of Glynn" and the "Song of the Chattahoochee." In answer to her puzzled look when I announced the title, Signora Piazza and I together explained that marshes would be *paludi* in Italian, like her own familiar *Paludi Pontine* in the southern part of her own district *Lazio* around Rome, and that Marshes of Glynn would be just the same as if one speaks of *Paludi di Lazio*. "Ah!" she cried with that delicious Italian intonation of surprise and understanding. "Then Glynn is *una località*" (a place). I replied that she was quite correct and that Glynn was a county in Georgia that corresponded to *Lazio* in Italy. When we came to the other title, the same process of explanation went on. The Song of the Chattahoochee, it was explained to her, would be like saying "*Canzone di Tevere*" (Song of the Tiber). Again she made that delicious exclamation of surprise. "Ah!" she said, "Chattahoochee is a river" *(fiume)*.

This young lady as I have said was only a substitute teacher and I failed to get her name, which Signora Piazza also did not know, but I have never seen more intelligent or more effective and vital teaching or with a wider scope and outlook than I saw in that Dante class on November 25th. There was the same ease of scholarly exposition, the same eagerness of discussion, the same informal and genial relation between teacher and pupils, the same serious dignity as I had seen in most classes.

All these pupils whom I had been hearing had been picked from thousands, almost mercilessly selected from the youth of both sexes. The process of selection, carried on logically and rigorously as it is, emphasizes and increases the differences between the intellectuals and the workers and less favored classes. The workers and the lower middle classes are well provided with the newer schools *(istituto tecnico, istituto commerciale, scuola di avviamento al lavoro, scuola industriale, scuola professionale)*. The peasants or tenants and less intelligent among the farmers also have the special schools for agriculture and the like, but how much their school programs bring them into the national life or sinks them hopelessly in a submerged class as hewers of wood and drawers of water remains to be seen, but there are persistent and humanitarian efforts in their behalf and the actual results in the schools hold great promise.

5. Increased Opportunities for Secondary Pupils

The following figures gathered from the Italian Yearbook *(Annuario,* 1930) will make the kinds of secondary schools understood and at the same time show the bulk of this great and growing enterprise in relation to the whole scheme of the lower elementary schools discussed in the previous chapter and the higher education of university and institute to be discussed in the next chapter.

Secondary schools controlled by the state are some of full status and fully supported, others are ranked as equal in function and partly supported. The following figures are for enrollment in the *Istituti Governativi e Pareggiati* (Government institutions and the equivalents), 1928-29:

I. Istituti	Governativi		Pareggiati	
Ginnasi—Licei	38,373		2,581	
Ginnasi isolati	9,470		3,362	
		47,843		5,943
Licei isolati	17,342		1,837	
Licei scientifici	6,073		123	
Licei femminili	49		0	
		23,464		1,960
Total in Licei		71,307		7,903
Istituti tecnici		31,420		4,511
Istituti magistrali:				
Corso superiore	8,394			
Corso inferiore	13,904			
		22,298		
Scuole complementari		50,075		9,605
Totals		175,101		22,019
Total in Governativi				175,101
Grand total of both				197,120

II. Istituti Privati

Miscellaneous schools mostly below standard, ranked in three groups, showed the following enrollment, 1928-29:

(1)	Like Ginnasi—Licei—Istituti Governativi	21,213
(2)	Like special schools of lesser rank	14,142
(3)	Like special courses or finishing	7,565
	Total	42,920
	Total in government and equivalent	197,120
	Grand total in public and private	240,040

III. Teaching Staff

Principals and teachers who direct the public and private secondary schools numbered, 1928-29:

		Principals			*Teachers*		
		Male	*Female*		*Male*	*Female*	
(a)	In the Istituti Governativi	514	27	541	5,910	2,704	8,614
(b)	In the Istituti Pareggiati	151	15	166	782	552	1,334
	Totals			707			9,948
	Total principals						707
	Total principals and teachers						10,655
(c)	In the Istituti Privati						
	No definite figures are available, probably						2,000
	Total public and private principals and teachers						12,655

Besides the secondary schools of severely intellectual purpose and leading to higher studies and the professions and besides the technical and vocational schools included in the tabulation above are these special schools of secondary education which offer studies for immediate application and are therefore more an end in themselves. The following table shows the number of these special schools, the number of teachers, and the enrollment.

ISTITUTI SPECIALI D'ISTRUZIONE MEDIA, 1928–29
(Special Institutions of Secondary Instruction, 1928–29)

NAME	No. of Schools	NUMBER OF TEACHERS		Total No. Teachers	ENROLLMENT		Total Enrollment
		Male	Female		Male	Female	
1. Scuole Agrarie	69	512	39	551	3,710	0	3,710
2. Scuole Minerarie	4			38			151
3. Istituti e Scuole Commerciali	99	654	362	1,016	12,777	3,640	16,417
4. Istituti e Scuole Industriali	295	1,665	495	2,159	37,182	4,372	41,554
5. RR. Istituti Nautici	17				1,072	0	1,072
6. RR. Scuole d'Arte	59	503	86	589	7,969	1,159	9,128
7. RR. Accademie di Belle Arti e Licei Artistici	9	201	14	215	997	312	1,309
8. RR. Conservatori di Musica	6	164	125	189	866	761	1,627
9. Istituti di Musica Pareggiati	8	200	40	240	1,433	1,484	2,917
10. Scuole d'Arte Private	24	103	8	111	2,993	300	3,293
11. Accademie di Belle Arti Private	8	52	5	57	699	276	975
12. Istituti Musicali Privati	34	226	25	251	3,668	1,774	5,442
Grand Totals	632	4,280	1,379	5,416	73,359	14,078	87,595

NOTE: Greatest enrollment of girls is (2,530 of the 4,372 in No. 4) in the special Regie Scuole Professionali Femminili (Royal female professional schools).

The volume of opportunity offered to boys and girls in the Italian secondary schools has been enormously increased in this generation. The greater number of secondary pupils are found in the newer government schools established mostly in the past twenty years. In the United States the pupils in the secondary schools show a greater percentage and vastly outnumber those in Italy. Our public high schools had 3,950,855 pupils in 1927-28 and 344,318 pupils in private high schools, a total of 4,298,273 pupils out of a population of about 120,000,000 (probably 5,000,000 pupils now in a population of 123,000,000). In all secondary Italian schools there are about 330,000 pupils in a population of about 42,000,000 (about one pupil in a hundred and twenty-four; in the United States at present about one in twenty-five).

A tabulation of high schools in Italy (area 119,710 sq. mi., population 41,173,000) and the three states of Tennessee, Kentucky, Ohio (area 123,660, population 11,872,264) is given below (as for elementary schools in the previous chapter) to serve for a better comparison of three factors—territory, high-school enrollment, and the teachers:

	Public-School Enrollment	Private-School Enrollment	Totals	Teachers
Italy	275,105	52,530	327,635	c. 18,071
Tennessee	66,253	1,526	67,778	3,325
Kentucky	55,712	6,280	61,992	3,543
Ohio	243,023	20,436	263,459	8,894
Totals	364,997	28,242	393,229	15,762

The outlook on life in Italy and the results in schools cannot but be very different from ours. Italy is still intent upon thoroughness, we upon universal opportunity. In comparison, the quality of our scholarship and intellectual fiber seem on a low level, which we try to offset by the quantity of educational opportunity.

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2. Educational Yearbook, 1929, International Institute, New York, Macmillan Company, 1930. (Article on Italy by Ernesto Codignola, pp. 319-425.)
3. Educational Yearbook, 1930, International Institute, New York, Macmillan Company, 1931. (Article on Italy by Ernesto Codignola, pp. 343-386.)

B. Italian publications issued by

(a) Istituto Centrale di Statistica del Regno d'Italia, Via di Santa Susanna, 17 and printed by Istituto Poligrafico dello Stato:

1. Annuario Statistico Italiano, 1930. (Very complete for all features of the Kingdom, including education. Most of the other government publications relate to commerce, population, health, industry, etc.); and by

(b) Mimistero dell' Educazione Nazionale:

1. Gazzetta Ufficiale del Regno d'Italia (daily except holidays), Dec. 4, 1930.
2. Annuario degli Istituti Medi Pareggiati e Privati, 1930.
3. Statistiche sugli Istituti Medi d'Istruzione, 1927.
4. Biblioteche e Gabinetti Scientifici dei Regi Istituti Medi d'Istruzione, 1928.
5. Programmi di Esame di Ammissione, di Licenza, di Maturità, e di Abilitazione per gli Istituti Medi di Istruzione, 1928.
6. Bolletino Ufficiale (weekly), Nov. 13, 1930, Tipografia Operaia Romana, Via Emilio Morosini, 17.

All of these Italian government publications are on sale in Rome by the Libreria dello Stato at the Ministero delle Finanze, Via Venti Settembre. The wide space before the Ministry of the Finances is still called by its ancient Roman name, *Alta Semita.*

C. Periodical devoted to secondary education:

Annali della Istruzione Media, Anno V—Quaderni IV-V (25 Ottobre 1929—VII). Firenze: Felice Le Monnier, Editore.

Editor's Note.—The next issue of the JOURNAL will contain the third article: "III. Higher Institutions and National Ideals."

THE TIME ELEMENT IN GRADE DETERMINATION

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In addition to the reporting of final grades, it is the practice of the faculty of the Eastern Kentucky State Teachers College to report the grades of students to the registrar's office at the end of the first half of each semester. The mid-semester reports are made for two purposes: (1) to give students accurate information relative to their standing at mid-semester, and (2) to inform parents and guardians concerning the scholastic progress of those for whom they are responsible. Mid-semester grades and final grades are determined and assigned on the same bases. Grades are indicated by letters: "A" meaning excellent, "B" meaning good, "C" meaning average, "D" meaning poor, and "F" meaning failure.

It is the purpose of this article to give a brief summary of the relation between mid-semester grades and final grades in the Eastern Kentucky State Teachers College. This statement of the relation between mid-semester grades and final grades is based on a study of the reports for the first semester of the academic year 1931-32. In this study the following problems were considered:

(1) What is the coefficient of correlation between mid-semester grades and final grades for each department of instruction and for the institution as a whole?

(2) What is the coefficient of correlation between mid-semester grades and final grades for freshmen, sophomores, juniors, and seniors?

(3) What is the coefficient of correlation between mid-semester grades and final grades for courses classified according to the number of semester hours credit given?

(4) To what extent do final grades vary from mid-semester grades?

(5) What are the possibilities that the final grade will be of a different quality than that of the mid-semester grade?

Table I gives the coefficient of correlation between mid-semester grades and final grades for each department of instruction and for the institution as a whole.

TABLE I

COEFFICIENTS OF CORRELATION BETWEEN MID-SEMESTER GRADES AND FINAL GRADES

Department of Instruction	*Coefficient of Correlation*	PE_r
Agriculture	.64	±.038
Art	.45	±.050
Biology	.72	±.026
Chemistry	.76	±.031

Commerce	.72	±.021
Education	.64	±.016
English	.71	±.013
Foreign Language	.74	±.035
Geography	.70	±.020
Home Economics	.57	±.045
Industrial Arts	.50	±.066
Library Science	—.01	±.099
Mathematics	.67	±.018
Music	.56	±.051
Physical Education and Health	.66	±.024
Physics	.68	±.064
Social Science	.73	±.014
All Departments	.73	±.005

The data of Table I indicate that the coefficients of correlation between mid-semester grades and final grades range from — .01 in the department of library science to .76 in the department of chemistry. The coefficient of correlation between mid-semester grades and final grades for the institution as a whole is .73. In only two departments, namely, art and library science, are the coefficients of correlation between mid-semester grades and final grades less than .50. Departments where the coefficients of correlation are above .60 are: agriculture, .64; biology, .72; chemistry, .76; commerce, .72; education, .64; English, .71; foreign language, .74; geography, .70; mathematics, .67; physical education and health, .66; physics, .68; social science, .72.

In addition to computing the coefficients of correlation between mid-semester grades and final grades for each department of instruction and for the institution as a whole, the coefficient of correlation between mid-semester grades and final grades was found for each class in the institution. The values of these coefficients are given below:

Class	*Coefficient of Correlation*	
Freshman	.66	±.009
Sophomore	.68	±.012
Junior	.67	±.023
Senior	.64	±.019

The coefficients of correlation between mid-semester grades and final grades for courses classified according to the number of hours credit given are indicated in Table II.

TABLE II

COEFFICIENTS OF CORRELATION BETWEEN MID-SEMESTER GRADES AND FINAL GRADES FOR COURSES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO THE NUMBER OF SEMESTER HOURS CREDIT GIVEN

Semester Hours Credit Given	*Coefficient of Correlation*	PE_r
1	.58	±.048
2	.63	±.019
3	.68	±.007
4	.72	±.022
5	.77	±.037

TABLE III

SHOWING THE EXTENT TO WHICH FINAL GRADES VARY FROM MID-SEMESTER GRADES ACCORDING TO DEPARTMENTS

Department	Number Grades Assigned	PER CENT OF GRADES RAISED*				Per Cent Remaining Constant	PER CENT OF GRADES LOWERED*			
		4 Letters	3 Letters	2 Letters	1 Letter		1 Letter	2 Letters	3 Letters	4 Letters
Agriculture	111			.9	13.5	66.7	18.9			
Art	114			1.8	28.1	57.0	13.2			
Biology	152			3.9	24.3	57.9	13.2	.7		
Chemistry	84			8.3	21.4	59.5	10.7			
Commerce	238			4.2	23.1	57.1	13.9	1.7		
Education	580			.9	20.5	64.3	13.1	1.2		
English	629	.2	.2	1.4	20.5	60.3	16.1	1.4		
Foreign Language	76				23.7	59.2	11.8	5.3		
Geography	292			.7	22.9	61.6	14.0	.7		
Home Economics	101			2.0	28.7	61.4	7.9			
Industrial Arts	59			5.1	22.0	37.3	35.6			
Library Science	46			2.2	10.8	30.4	41.3	15.2		
Mathematics	410			3.7	16.6	61.2	13.7	4.9		
Music	84			3.6	20.2	58.3	17.9			
Physical Education and Health	249			1.6	30.5	57.4	9.2	1.2		
Physics	36			8.3	33.3	44.4	13.9			
Social Science	532			1.9	20.1	63.7	12.8	1.5		
All Departments	3793	.00	.00	2.2	21.5	60.3	14.2	1.7		

*To raise a grade one letter means that it was changed from "F" to "D," "D" to "C," "C" to "B," or "B" to "A." To lower a grade one letter means that it was lowered from "A" to "B," "B" to "C," "C" to "D," or "D" to "F." Similarly for two letters, three letters and four letters.

It is significant to note that the coefficient of correlation increases with the number of semester hours credit given in a course. The range is from .58 in one-hour courses to .77 in five-hour courses. These relationships tend to indicate that a student's grade is more apt to be determined during the first half of the semester in a course that meets several times per week than in one that meets only a few times per week. This probably means that both the student and teacher do more to determine the grade in a five-hour course than in a course carrying a smaller number of semester hours credit. In other words, the student probably puts forth greater effort to make a grade and the teacher likely does more to evaluate the work when the course meets frequently.

The extent to which final grades vary from mid-semester grades is indicated by Table III. It will be noted that the per cent of grades remaining constant ranged from 30.4 in the department of library science to 66.7 in the department of agriculture, and that for the institution as a whole it was 60.3. It is also shown by Table III that of the remaining grades for the institution as a whole 35.7 per cent were not changed more than one letter. These data indicate that 96 per cent of the final grades did not vary more than one letter from the mid-semester grades. Therefore only about 4 per cent of the final grades varied as much as two letters from the mid-semester grades. In other words most of the students determined their grades or practically so during the first half of the semester. It is significant to note that no grades were lowered as much as three letters. One grade in the department of English was raised three letters and one grade was raised four letters. The per cent of grades raised one letter was 21.5, while the per cent of grades lowered one letter was 14.2. Again it will be noted that the per cent of grades raised one or more letters was approximately 23.7, and that the per cent of grades lowered one or more letters was 15.7.

The possibilities that the final grade will be of a different quality than the mid-semester grade, as indicated by this study, are shown in the following table:

TABLE IV

SHOWING THE POSSIBILITY THAT THE FINAL GRADE WILL BE OF A DIFFERENT QUALITY THAN THE MID-SEMESTER GRADE

Mid-Semester Grade	Final Grade	Classification of Students				All Classes Combined
		Freshman Per Cent	Sophomore Per cent	Junior Per Cent	Senior Per Cent	
A	A	47.2	64.5	69.2	63.9	59.3
	B	40.3	33.9	28.2	36.1	35.4
	C	12.5	1.6	2.6		5.3
	D					
	F					
B	A	11.5	11.8	24.1	19.6	14.6
	B	30.5	62.4	54.5	66.3	58.1
	C	54.5	25.8	21.4	14.1	25.7
	D	3.4				1.5
	F					
C	A	1.6	2.1	3.5	2.1	1.9
	B	16.6	22.7	31.7	33.1	21.0
	C	67.1	66.8	58.3	60.7	65.9
	D	12.0	6.9	6.1	3.4	9.2
	F	2.6	1.5	.4	.7	1.9
D	A			3.2		.2
	B	1.5	1.1	3.2		1.7
	C	38.2	43.8	71.0	6.7	42.5
	D	42.9	38.2	19.4	73.3	39.7
	F	17.5	16.9	3.2	20.0	15.9
F	A	.6				.5
	B					
	C	16.0	20.6			16.1
	D	22.7	29.4	50.0	100.0	25.5
	F	60.7	50.0	50.0		57.8

The data of Table IV show the possibilities that the final grade will be of a different quality than the mid-semester grade. The data are given for freshmen, sophomores, juniors, seniors, and for all classes combined. Table IV is read thus: of the freshmen students who received mid-semester grades of "A," 47.2 per cent received final grades of "A," 40.3 per cent final grades of "B," and 12.5 per cent final grades of "C." The remainder of the table is read in the same way.

SUMMARY

The findings of this study may be summarized briefly as follows:

(1) The coefficients of correlation between mid-semester grades and final grades range from — .01 in the department of library science to .76 in the department of chemistry. The coefficient of correlation between mid-semester grades and final grades for the institution as a whole is .73. In only

two departments, namely, art and library science, are the coefficients of correlation between mid-semester grades and final grades less than .50.

(2) The variations in the coefficients of correlation between mid-semester grades and final grades for freshmen, sophomores, juniors, and seniors are not great enough to be considered significant.

(3) The coefficient of correlation between mid-semester grades and final grades increases with the number of semester hours credit given in a course; that is, a student's grade is more apt to be determined during the first half of the semester in a course that meets several times per week than in one that meets only a few times per week. The coefficient of correlation for one-hour courses was .58, for two-hour courses .63, for three-hour courses .68, for four-hour courses .72, and for five-hour courses .77.

(4) Approximately 60.3 per cent of the final grades are exactly the same as the mid-semester grades and the data show that 96 per cent of the final grades do not vary more than one letter from the mid-semester grades. The per cent of grades raised one or more letters was approximately 23.7 while the per cent of grades lowered was 15.7.

(5) A study of the possibilities that the final grade will be of a different quality than that of the mid-semester grade tends to indicate that grades are made during the first half of the semester.

DOES THE ARKANSAS EQUALIZATION PLAN EQUALIZE?

J. R. MEADERS

Introduction by
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The problem of equalizing educational opportunity through provision for an adjusted financial burden has received large attention during the past few years. Thirty-seven states today have some plan of equalizing the burden of school support. Most of these plans involve the principle of equal effort on the part of all taxing districts with the added provision of the state providing the sum necessary to add to the amount raised by the local districts in order to finance the minimum educational program common to all districts.

The above proposals have found common favor with educators and most state legislatures. The time has now come when the results of the plan in operation should be studied sympathetically and intelligently to discover if the scheme has worked out in practice in accordance with its theory.

The following study by Mr. J. R. Meaders, Supt. of Schools at Lewisville, Arkansas, is an attempt to appraise the results of the Arkansas equalizational program. This program has been in effect for four years.

In attempting to evaluate the effectiveness of the Arkansas equalization plan, which was authorized by the General Assembly of 1927, it will be my purpose to

1. Set up the underlying principles of any good equalization plan.
2. Enumerate the regulations under which Arkansas proposes to equalize.
3. Show the amount necessary to finance that plan, and how Arkansas proposes to raise that amount.
4. Evaluate the Arkansas plan showing wherein it fails to meet the needs of the state, and wherein it fails to meet the principles of a good equalization plan, both financially and otherwise.

Since Arkansas proposes to equalize on the small fund basis this is the only method that need be considered here. There are or should be at least six principles upon which an adequate program of equalization by the small fund method should rest. These principles are as follows:

1. The minimum program to be equalized should equal at least the average program offering throughout the state.
2. The expenditures for or cost of this program should be calculated on the basis of the average cost for this offering over the state.
3. The tax rate of any particular local district or fiscal unit should not be more than that required by the district with the greatest assessed valuation per teaching unit to support the minimum program. This local rate should be common to all local districts desiring to participate in the equalization fund.

4. The state should raise funds which, when added to the amount raised by the common local tax levy, will be sufficient to guarantee to each county or district the minimum program.

5. There should be opportunity for any local unit to provide an offering beyond the minimum program, if it so desires.

6. Fiscal and administrative units large enough to provide for economical educational administration should exist.

The Arkansas General Assembly of 1927, after much effort for a number of years on the part of the educational forces of the state, provided for an equalization fund to assist those districts unable to finance their reasonable school program otherwise. The General Assembly simply provided for the establishment of such a fund and charged the State Board of Education with the duty of providing regulations for its distribution. To attempt to enumerate these provisions in full detail would be rather lengthy and perhaps unnecessary for the purposes of this paper. The principal provisions of these regulations, as they relate to the principles enumerated at the outset, follow:

1. A school term of eight months is established as the minimum for schools to be aided.

2. The local unit must levy a local eighteen mill tax before participating in the proceeds of the equalization fund.

3. The State Board of Education will grant aid only on the recommendation of the County Board of Education, and only in cases where the school center embraces the territory that should be served, as determined by a county wide plan for each county, set up by the State and County Boards of Education.

4. Participation in the equalization fund is determined in accordance with a definite salary schedule, set up by the State Board of Education. This schedule varies from $45 per month for teachers with only elementary school training and no experience to $110 per month for teachers of four years college training and three years experience. Teachers of only elementary school training, one, two, and three years of high school training, may not be employed unless they were already in service when the regulations were established. Teachers of this training already in service at the time the regulations were put into effect were allowed to continue provided at least six hours of credit or its equivalent are earned each year. Additional allowances are made under this regulation above the regular schedule for administrative officers.

5. Additional allowances, varying from ten to fifteen per cent of the salary schedule depending upon the size of the school, are made for current expenses other than salaries, insurance and transportation.

6. Allowances for insurance may be made, figured at three per cent of the total salary schedule.

7. Transportation allowances may also be made according to a complicated schedule. The allowance depends upon the number of pupils transported, mileage in excess of five miles one way, and mileage of dirt road one way.

8. Arkansas law also provides for a form of equalization of capital outlay through what is known as the revolving loan fund. Finances for this fund come from the permanent school fund of the state. This does not particularly affect the equalization program since it is entirely separate from the remainder of the program. In fact it is doubtful whether it is a wise provision since it touches the permanent school fund of the state without the proper safeguards for such an important fund.

Surveys have been made of the state determining what the cost of equalizing the educational offering of Arkansas according to the regulations enumerated above would be. One by Howard A. Dawson, of the State Department of Education, made in 1929-30 and published in November, 1930, shows that the cost of equalizing the program outlined by the Arkansas regulations would be approximately $2,000,000.00. A later survey conducted by Harry A. Little, under the direction of the State Board of Education, and published in March, 1932, shows that the cost of equalizing the same program would be nearly $3,000,000.00. This discrepancy is probably due to falling assessments, a material decrease in the general state apportionment, and to the general financial condition.

Although the General Assembly of 1927 provided for an equalization fund to be apportioned to the schools under the regulations of the State Board of Education, no money was provided by this assembly for financing the program. It was not, then, until the General Assembly of 1929 that any effort was made to provide money, and not until 1930 was any money available. The General Assembly of 1929 attempted to provide revenue for the equalization fund through two earmarked taxes for the purpose. The proceeds of the cigar and cigarette tax, above the first $750,000 which goes to the common school fund, were allocated to the equalization fund. This arrangement still stands, except that the General Assembly of 1931 added an additional tax of one cent per package of cigarettes, the proceeds to retire bonds for a building fund for institutions of higher learning. This extra cent tax must be taken into consideration in examining the revenue from this source during the fiscal year 1931-32.

The General Assembly of 1929 also levied a tax of from one to three per cent on net incomes above $1,500 for single persons and $2,500 for married persons. The proceeds of this tax were to go into the equalization fund. The same General Assembly, however, when confronted with the problem of financing a new hospital for nervous diseases and an addition to the tuberculosis sanitarium, later provided that the first $500,000 of the income tax, or as much of that amount as was needed, should be used to retire

bonds to be issued for these new buildings. The next $750,000 of the income tax was to be credited to the equalization fund, and the remainder, if any, used to lower the state property tax rate.

The General Assembly of 1931 placed a tax of from $2.50 to $10.00 on each and every slot or vending machine operated within the state. The entire revenue from this source is credited to the equalization fund. These are the only three sources of revenue ever provided for this fund in Arkansas.

Figures for the total amounts realized from these sources were furnished by J. Oscar Humphrey, Auditor of State, Little Rock, Arkansas, and are given in table form below:

Year	*Cigar and Cigarette Tax*	*Income Tax*	*Slot Machine Tax*	*Total*
1929-30*	See note below			
1930-31	$750,000.00	$650,934.01	not levied	$1,400,934.01
1931-32	631,442.08	311,718.28	$7,363.75	950,524.11

Although the exact figures are not available for the year 1929-30, the first year any money at all was provided, the amount realized was a little over $1,000,000.00, about half what surveys show was needed at the time. An examination of the figures for the other two years shows that in 1930-31 no more was realized from the cigar and cigarette tax than the $750,000 specified for the common school fund and apportioned on the school census basis. In 1931-32 not enough was realized from this source to provide the $750,000 for the common school fund without making any allowance for the fifth cent cigarette tax levied for the benefit of the institutions of higher learning. In a word, then, for two out of three years of its operation the cigar and cigarette tax has not provided one cent for the equalization fund.

An examination of the returns from the income tax shows that in 1929-30, when the amount set aside to retire the bonds on the hospital for nervous diseases and the tuberculosis sanitarium is subtracted, only $150,934.01 was realized for the equalization fund. In 1931-32 not nearly enough was realized from the income tax for these prior claims alone.

These figures mean that in 1930-31 not one twentieth of the amount needed to provide equalization under the Arkansas plan was realized while during the past year only a little over $7,000 was available for the fund. The general financial situation accounted for part of the loss, but there is such a wide discrepancy between needs and receipts that we are justified in the conclusion that present sources of revenue will not provide nearly as much as is needed under the best of financial conditions and in the best of years.

To examine the Arkansas plan in the light of the principles set up in the beginning of this paper we find that the Arkansas plan satisfies these principles in part but falls far short in other particulars. According to the

*For some reason Mr. Humphrey failed to give figures for 1929-30.

Dawson survey of the state the offering provided under the Arkansas equalization plan and the cost of this offering, as set up in the equalization plan, approximate closely the average for the state as a whole, but in every other particular the Arkansas plan fails to satisfy the principles set up as a guide.

Our third underlying principle states that the local tax rate should be no more than that required in the richest district to finance the minimum program. This rate as the local tax rate would in itself provide opportunity for the local district to go beyond the minimum offering if it so desired, as provided in our fifth principle. An examination of the Arkansas plan shows that in order to participate in the equalization fund a district in Arkansas must first vote the maximum local levy allowed under the state constitution, eighteen mills. Having voted the eighteen mills before being allowed to share in the equalization fund there is, of course, no opportunity for the local district to offer more than the minimum program unless the district is able to finance its schools without aid from the equalization fund.

Principle six states that fiscal and administrative units must be large enough to provide for economical educational administration. Arkansas, on the other hand, refuses to permit a district to share in the equalization fund until "the school center embraces the territory that should be served, as determined by a county wide plan for each county set up by the State and County Board of Education." While in this sense then Arkansas' plan of equalization meets the requirements of principle six, at the same time this very requirement of the Arkansas plan shuts out a large part of the state from participation in the fund. According to the survey of the State Board of Education, directed by Harry A. Little and published in March, 1932, there are 3,089 school districts in the state. The Dawson survey of November, 1930, shows only 810 schools in the state with any classification whatever, and only 538 with C classification or better. Since the Arkansas plan requires at least C classification for equalizing aid, we see that nearly five-sixth of the school districts are eliminated from participation on that score. These same schools serve about half the pupils of the state. Most of them cannot maintain classified schools because of lack of large enough units of administration. Although the legislature of the state has ample authority to change this situation nothing has been done except to permit voluntary consolidation under certain regulations. To make the situation worse the last legislature, that of 1931, passed laws making voluntary consolidation more difficult to effect instead of easier.

We have already shown that the plan of financing the equalization program in Arkansas is woefully deficient.

We are therefore forced to several rather clear cut conclusions as to the Arkansas plan of equalization.

1. It satisfies fairly well the requirements of a good program as to minimum offering and the cost of this offering.

2. It violates the principle of local tax rate in that it requires the maximum allowed by the state constitution, instead of that necessary to finance the program in the richest district.

3. No adequate plan of equalization can be devised until something is done to provide adequate fiscal and administrative units.

4. No opportunity is afforded those schools dependent on the equalization fund to offer more than the minimum program.

5. No program of equalization, no matter how meager, may be financed until some radical changes are made in the method of obtaining revenue for the fund.

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DIAGNOSTIC AND REMEDIAL TREATMENT IN ARITHMETIC—II

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This is the second of a series of brief reports on diagnostic and remedial work in the teaching of arithmetic. The first report appeared in the PEABODY JOURNAL OF EDUCATION in November, 1931. By way of review it is suggested that the reader scan the first report. For the reader who does not have access to the first report suffice it to say here that the diagnostic and remedial work was carried on in the Peabody Demonstration School. In February, June, and September of 1931 an individual diagnosis was made of the difficulties of the five students under investigation, constituting three separate diagnoses of each student, in the fundamental processes of arithmetic by means of a combination of fifteen or more diagnostic and survey tests in arithmetic. After each of the diagnoses in February and June certain types of remedial work were undertaken. Following the September diagnosis no remedial work was given except that which might have occurred incidentally in the classroom. The final conclusion of the study published in November, 1931, stated, "there is nothing in this study to indicate how long these difficulties will remain eliminated. The permanence of improvement should be checked at the end of another seven or eight months period." It is the purpose of this brief report to check the permanence of improvement at the end of a period of seven months, as revealed by an individual diagnosis in April, 1932.

ADDITION

The permanence of the mastery of a difficulty is indicated in Table I. This table should be read as follows: In column 1 it is indicated that in one or more of the first three diagnoses four students were inconsistent in adding in carried number first and last. Of these four students, two repeated the error in the diagnosis of April, 1932, after it had been eliminated in one of the earlier diagnoses (column 2); one student eliminated the difficulty, and it did not reappear (column 3); and one student continued the difficulty without any interim of elimination (column 5). In the diagnosis of April, 1932, this factor appeared as a new difficulty for one student (column 4). From column 6 of Table I it will be observed that only one student had this difficulty as of September, 1931, while four students (column 7) were inconsistent in adding in carried number first and last as of April, 1932. Table I indicates further that twenty-seven per cent of the difficulties in addition which were eliminated in one of the first three diagnoses recurred in the diagnosis of April, 1932; twelve per cent of the difficulties continued to exist (never being

temporarily eliminated); while sixty-one per cent of the difficulties were eliminated permanently—at least temporarily permanent. Twenty difficulties in addition were eliminated as of April, 1932, but sixteen new difficulties appeared. Columns 6 and 7 of Table I show an appreciable increase in the number of difficulties in addition during the period in which no remedial work was attempted. All the facts of this paragraph point to the lack of permanence in the elimination of difficulties in addition and to the necessity of continuous remedial instruction.

SUBTRACTION

Only thirteen per cent of the difficulties in subtraction (compared to twenty-seven per cent in addition) which were eliminated in one of the first three diagnoses recurred in the diagnosis of April, 1932; only one difficulty (four per cent) continued to exist (never being temporarily eliminated); while eighty-three per cent of the difficulties were eliminated permanently—at least temporarily permanent. As in the case of addition, a slightly larger number of difficulties in subtraction (19) were eliminated as of April, 1932, than there were new difficulties added (14). Columns 6 and 7 of Table I also show in the case of subtraction the necessity of continuous remedial instruction and drill on the difficulties that have been eliminated even temporarily. These facts show a greater degree of permanence of improvement in the elimination of subtraction difficulties than in the elimination of addition difficulties, complete permanence of elimination being conspicuous for its absence in both cases.

MULTIPLICATION

Seventeen per cent of the difficulties in multiplication which were eliminated in one of the first three diagnoses recurred in the diagnosis of April, 1932; thirteen per cent of the difficulties continued to exist (never being temporarily eliminated); while seventy per cent of the difficulties were eliminated permanently—at least temporarily permanent. In point of view of permanence of improvement multiplication holds a position somewhat between addition and subtraction. However, unlike addition and subtraction, a slightly larger number of new difficulties in multiplication (21) were added than there were difficulties eliminated (16). Also in the case of multiplication the necessity for continuous remedial instruction is shown, because complete permanence in the elimination of difficulties is lacking.

DIVISION

Only one difficulty (four per cent) in division which was eliminated in one of the first three diagnoses recurred in the diagnosis of April, 1932; twenty-one per cent of the difficulties continued to exist (not being tem-

porarily eliminated); while seventy-five per cent of the difficulties were eliminated permanently—at least temporarily permanent. As in the case of multiplication, a slightly larger number (28) of new difficulties in division was added than there were difficulties eliminated (21). Again columns 6 and 7 of Table I indicate the necessity of continuous remedial instruction and drill on difficulties that have been temporarily eliminated.

TABLE I

DIFFICULTIES IN FUNDAMENTAL PROCESSES IN ARITHMETIC

TYPES OF ERRORS AND DIFFICULTIES	Number of Different Cases Having Difficulties to Sept. 1, 1931	DIAGNOSIS AS OF APRIL 1, 1932				Number of Different Cases Having Difficulties as of Sept. 1, 1931	Number of Different Cases Having Difficulties as of April 1, 1932
		Difficulties Recurring	Difficulties Eliminated	New Difficulties	Continued Difficulties		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ADDITION							
Shifting from one problem to another	1		1				
Special difficulty with combinations containing "7"	1	1		1			2
Counting to get sum	5		4		1	1	1
Working problems in column order instead of rows	1		1				
Inconsistent in the order of adding one number to another	1	1		3			4
Repeating work after partly done—especially in columns	3		1		2	3	2
Grouping two or more numbers in an unnatural order	1		1			1	
Inconsistent in adding in carried number first and last	4	2	1	1	1	1	4
Inconsistent in adding up or down	1		1				
Counting on fingers	3	2	1				2
Errors in a large number of combinations	4	1	3	1			2
Adding numbers horizontally instead of vertically	1	1					1
Deriving unknown combinations from familiar ones	1		1	3			3
Splitting numbers—securing units of fives, tens, etc.	2	1	1	1			2
Repeating the sum with each new combination	4		4				
Wrote number to be carried				1			1
Errors in reading numbers				1			1
Errors in writing answer				2			2
Carrying when there was nothing to carry				1			1
Difficulty in combinations containing "9"				1			1
SUBTRACTION							
Errors in a large number of combinations	4	3	1	1			4
Adds the last digit instead of subtracting it	1		1				

TABLE I—Continued

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not allowing for having borrowed	4		4			1	
Failing to bring down a digit	2		2				
Failing to borrow	1		1				
Errors due to zero in minuend	1			1	1	1	2
Counting to get remainder	2		2			1	
Subtracting same number in subtrahend from two numbers in minuend	2		2	1		1	1
Special difficulty with combinations containing "9"	1		1	1			1
Adding instead of subtracting	2		2				
Split combinations and numbers	1		1				
Counting on fingers	1		1	1		1	1
Said example backwards				1			1
Subtracted minuend from subtrahend				2			2
Deducted 2 from minuend after borrowing				1			1
Derived unknown combination from familiar one	1		1	2		1	2
Error in reading				1			1
Error due to minuend and subtrahend digits being the same				1			1
Increased minuend digit after borrowing				1			1
MULTIPLICATION							
Errors in large number of combinations	4		3		1	3	1
Counting to get product	2		2				
Failing to bring down zero in product	1		1				
Error due to zero in multiplicand and multiplier	4	2		1	2	2	5
Misplacing the numbers brought down in the product	2		2	1			1
Special difficulty with combinations containing "7" and "9"	4	1	3	1		1	2
Errors in addition	3	1	2			1	1
Securing multiplication combinations by adding	1		1	1		1	1
Deriving the unknown combinations from more familiar ones	1		1				
Counting on fingers	1		1	2		1	2
Error in adding the carried number				1			1
Used wrong process—added				1			1
Errors in reading				2			2
Multiplied by same digit twice				1			1
Carried a wrong number				2			2
Forgot to carry				2			2
Used multiplicand as multiplier				1			1
Illegible figures				3			3
Wrote wrong digit of product				1			1
Alternated in using multiplicand and multiplier for finding product				1			1
DIVISION							
Failing to bring down zero when it would not go	1				1	1	
Special difficulty with combinations containing "7"	2		2				
Errors in multiplication combinations	5		3		2	3	2
Used long division form for short division and vice versa	3		1	1	2	2	3
Failing to bring down the remainder	1		1				
Counting on fingers	3		3			1	
Failing to reduce fractions to lowest terms	1		1				

TABLE I—Continued

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Counting to get quotient	2		2	1			1
Special difficulty with odd quotients	1		1				
Finding quotient by adding	1		1	2			2
Reversing dividend and divisor	2		2				
Errors in subtraction	1			3	1	1	4
Finding quotient by trial multiple	1	1		3			4
In subtracting, confuses subtraction with addition	1		1				
Using wrong process	1		1				
Omitting digit in dividend	1		1	2			2
Using a remainder larger than the divisor	1		1	1			1
Errors in division combination				2			2
Neglected to use remainder within the problem				2			2
Illegible writing				2			2
Wrote remainders within the problem				1			1
Split dividend				1			1
Annex a zero in dividend				2			2
Omitted final remainder				1			1
Used remainder without new dividend figure				1			1
Said example backwards				3			3
Total	107	17	76	79	14	29	109

SUMMARY

Only sixteen per cent of the total number of difficulties in addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division which were eliminated in one of the first three diagnoses recurred in the diagnosis of April, 1932; thirteen per cent of the total difficulties were never eliminated even temporarily; while seventy-one per cent were eliminated permanently—at least permanent during the course of the diagnoses. In order of permanence of elimination of difficulties in arithmetic the fundamental processes rank as follows, the first named having the greatest degree of permanence: division, subtraction, multiplication, and addition. These facts are encouraging, but when a slightly larger number (79) of new difficulties in arithmetic is added than there are difficulties (76) eliminated, we are not privileged to be so optimistic for the diagnostive procedure. Add to this the fact that there were 109 different difficulties to be eliminated as of April, 1932, compared to twenty-nine as of September, 1931, and we have a striking illustration of the need for remedial work. The proper diagnosis of difficulties in arithmetic is the necessary initial step, but the potence of its value is lost without the proper follow-up work in remedial instruction. Not only is carefully organized remedial instruction necessary to the elimination of difficulties in arithmetic, but a program of continued remedial instruction and drill must be carried on to prevent the recurrence of the difficulty.

CHILDREN'S SPONTANEOUS WRITING

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Letter writing holds a secondary place in the written composition instruction in the school despite the fact that it maintains a primary position in the writing of a great majority of people in life outside the school. The result of lack of training in the school is that both children and adults are often deficient in the mechanics of letter writing and are more often either ignorant or negligent concerning the situations which call for letters. Furthermore, many who are sensitive to the situations which call for letters are at a loss when they attempt, for example, the letter of condolence or the note of congratulation.

One of the perplexing problems of the elementary school teacher relative to written composition is concerned with motivation. How can the child be led to see the value of writing? How can the child be induced to want to write? What motives may be utilized in implanting proper attitudes and skills in writing? Utilization of the so-called communication tendency is a helpful first step. The child who does not wish to write themes on abstract subjects such as *friendship* or *courage* may do very well in life situations calling for letters. It is important, therefore, that the teacher utilize life situations and provide parallel situations in the school in order to lead children to desire to write. Only after proper readiness has been fostered in the child can effective training in the mechanics of expression be properly carried forward. When the child has perceived some of the values of writing and when the desire for self expression has been implanted, the work of further instruction may be more readily undertaken.

Since an important phase of instruction is to make use of the situations in which children write letters, a study of 3,184 social letters written by children in life outside the school was made.[1] These letters were collected from city and rural children in forty-one states. They were written in natural situations which called for letters. They were distributed throughout the twelve months of the year. Most of them were dated 1929 and 1930. Nine hundred and fifteen were written by boys and 2,269 were written by girls; 2,035 were written by children who attended city and town schools and 1,149 were written by children who attended rural schools; 1,243 were written by children of the

[1]James A. Fitzgerald. *The Vocabulary, Spelling Errors, and Situations of Fourth, Fifth, and Sixth Grade Children's Letters Written in Life Outside the School*, Ph.D. Thesis, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa. (This thesis was prepared under the direction of Dr. Ernest Horn.) 1931.

sixth grade level, 1,199 were written by children of the fifth grade level, and 742 were written by children of the fourth grade level. A form for classification, the reliability of which was tested by three competent judges, was used in preparing the data for the Hollerith machine by which the counting and sorting were done.

GENERAL LETTER SITUATIONS

Two main judgments of each letter were made: namely, (1) to whom was the letter written? (2) About what was the letter written? A letter might be written, for example, to a *friend* about *experiences, activities, and events of life,* about *the weather,* and about *animals,* or to a *cousin* about *school* and concerning *objects.* Different situations were distinguished by means of the form used. For instance, the situation in which a letter is written to an *aunt who is sick* is different from one in which a letter is written to an *aunt thanking her for a gift.* The situation in which an *apology* is written to a *friend* is different from one in which an *apology* is made to a *parent.* Table I presents the two main items of the situations in which children on the fourth, fifth, and sixth grade levels wrote letters. It is read as follows: Of the 742 social letters of children on the fourth grade level, 640 contained information concerning *experiences, activities, and events of life,* 281 contained information about *objects,* 56 expressed *thanks,* 4 expressed *greeting,* none was *congratulatory,* 13 carried expressions of *sympathy and condolence,* 9 made *apologies or explanations,* 140 described *animals,* 35 *requested something,* 425 contained information about *school,* 47 carried informal *invitations or acceptances,* 182 mentioned the *weather,* and 2 expressed *encouragement.* In the 742 letters 1,834 general items were mentioned, approximately 2½ items per letter. These data show for example that of the 9 letters of *apology or explanation,* 1 was written to a cousin, 2 were written to teachers, and 6 were written to friends, and so on. Other facts in this table may be read in like manner.

It is noteworthy that children's letters of the three grades frequently contained items concerning (1) *experiences, activities, and events,* (2) *objects,* (3) *school,* (4) the *weather,* and (5) *animals.* It should be noted that there were only two letters of *congratulations* in the sixth grade collection and none in the fourth or fifth grade collections in this day of games and contests. The table shows comparatively few letters of *condolence, encouragement,* and *greeting.* A comparison of the types of letters written by the children of the various grade levels indicates much similarity. On the other hand, there are a few differences. Sixth grade children's letters contained approximately three times as many suggestions of *apology* and *explanation,* comparatively, as fifth grade children's, and about five times as many, proportionately, as fourth grade children's. The sixth grade children wrote more often, according

TABLE I

SITUATIONS IN WHICH 3184 SOCIAL LETTERS OF CHILDREN WERE WRITTEN

Types of Content	Grade	Total			Parents			Uncles and Aunts			Brothers and Sisters			Grand-parents			Cousins			Teachers & former Teachers			School-mates			Friends			Others		
		4th	5th	6th	4th	5th	6th	4th	5th	6th	4th	5th	6th	4th	5th	6th	4th	5th	6th	4th	5th	6th	4th	5th	6th	4th	5th	6th	4th	5th	6th
Experiences activities & events		640	1016	1096		1	14	18	21	18	21	22	29	1	6	7	141	205	202	25	30	42	7	19	19	421	707	756	6	5	9
Objects		281	427	457		1	9	10	11	9	10	11	19	1	3	3	64	82	81	10	11	13	4	7	8	179	299	312	3	2	3
Thanks		56	102	124			1	6	5	5	2	3	2	1	3	4	15	21	22	5	2	23	1	2	1	26	66	66			
Greeting		4	2	11			1			3	1	1							4			1			1	3	1	1			
Congratulations				2															1									1			
Sympathyor condolence		13	18	17			1						1					2	3	1	2	1				12	14	11			
Apology or Explanation		9	25	74			2					1	1				1	5	17	2	2	5			2	6	17	47			
About animals		140	203	215			2	4	3	2	4	5	5		1		34	51	50	7	7	11	2	4	2	85	131	142	4	1	1
Request		35	68	110			6	1	3	4			3				5	9	11	2	4	2		1	3	26	51	79	1		2
School		425	657	674			3	8	14	8	16	12	10		3	1	97	141	127	19	24	27	3	18	12	278	441	482	4	4	4
Invitations acceptes.		47	67	112				3	8	1		2	2				6	19	25	1		1	1	1	1	34	45	82	2		
About the Weather		182	299	347			6	6		8	3	6	8		2	2	51	76	73	8	10	6	2	4	8	112	192	233		1	3
Inspiration and encouragement		2	7	12						1								4	4							2	3	7			
Total items		1834	2891	3251		2	45	56	65	59	57	63	80	3	18	17	414	615	620	80	92	132	20	56	57	1184	1967	2219	20	13	22
Number of Letters		742	1199	1243																											

to these data, than the fourth and fifth grade children concerning *invitations* and *acceptances.* It is striking that fourth grade children expressed *sympathy* in 1.75 per cent of their letters, that fifth grade children expressed it in 1.5 per cent of their letters, and that sixth grade children expressed it in but 1.37 per cent of theirs. These very small percentage differences would seem to indicate that children may not have been helped in school to be sensitive to those situations which call for letters of this nature.

SPECIFIC LETTER SITUATIONS

As the letters were read, note was made of specific types of content contained in them. Table II presents these more or less specific types of content written by children of the three grade levels. For example, under the general class of letters about *experiences, activities, and events* forty-five specific types were found, such as letters about *a dinner, party, or picnic* or letters about *a surprise, etc.* Under the general class, *objects,* twenty specific types were found, such as letters about a radio or about a Christmas tree. If each of these types of letters were written to every one of the eighteen classes of people

TABLE II

SPECIFIC SITUATIONS OF CHILDREN'S LETTERS

I. *Recipients of Letters*

1. Mother
2. Father
3. Uncle
4. Aunt
5. Sister
6. Brother
7. Folks
8. Grandmother
9. Grandfather
10. Cousin or cousins
11. Niece
12. Other relatives
13. Teacher
14. Former teacher
15. Classmate, schoolmate, or playmate
16. Former classmate or schoolmate
17. Friend
18. Others (includes letters to Santa Claus)

II. *Types of Letters*

A. Letters about experiences, activities, and events in life outside the school

1. A dinner, party, or picnic
2. A surprise
3. Such a thing as a Fourth of July celebration
4. An Armistice Day parade, memorial program, or valentine activity
5. A visit to the doctor or dentist
6. A trip to a circus or motion picture
7. Some exciting thing such as the capture of an animal
8. A trip to the country or to the city
9. An accident or hardship
10. Plans for the future; such as, for a vacation or for a trip
11. Hunting, fishing, or trapping
12. Sleighing, coasting, skating, or swimming
13. A horseback ride, automobile ride, or bicycle ride
14. A program, social, or play
15. A vacation
16. Corn shelling or threshing
17. Work (chores or a job)
18. Play, fun, or games
19. Construction of something (sewing or weaving)
20. Music lessons, correspondence lessons, or band practice

21. A visit
22. Church, Sunday school, or Bible class
23. Sickness, disease, or an operation
24. Health, good or bad
25. Meeting of the Young Citizens' League or Boy Scouts (some other convention)
26. A fire
27. A picture or a photograph
28. Writing letters
29. Exhibits and fairs
30. Funerals
31. Marriages or births
32. Dances
33. Sending letters or Valentines
34. A sale
35. Santa Claus
36. Vaccination
37. Census taking
38. Political campaigns
39. Elections
40. Planting trees
41. Pole-sitting marathons
42. Putting up ice
43. A quarrel
44. Collecting stamps
45. Making New Year's resolutions

B. Letters about objects
1. A radio
2. A birthday or wedding cake
3. A Christmas tree
4. A birthday present, Christmas gift, or other gift
5. Flowers or trees
6. A doll or toy
7. Letters
8. Books or magazines
9. A circus or show
10. Equipment or apparatus
11. Machinery
12. An automobile, bicycle, or airplane
13. New clothes
14. Jewelry, etc.
15. Crops, grain, or fruit
16. Valentines
17. Fields, hills, valleys, rivers, etc.
18. Farm or garden
19. Pictures
20. Food, candy, etc.

C. Letters of thanks or appreciation
1. For flowers
2. For help given
3. For something borrowed
4. For privilege
5. For a gift
6. For a favor
7. For a loan
8. For a letter
9. A bread and butter letter
10. For pictures

D. Letters of greeting
1. Birthday
2. Christmas
3. New Year
4. Valentine

E. Letters of congratulation
1. On a victory in debate or athletics
2. On winning a prize or honor
3. Upon winning a music or singing contest
4. Upon winning a declamatory contest
5. Upon receiving a medal

F. Letters of sympathy or condolence
1. Upon the occasion of injury to or illness of a friend
2. Upon the occasion of the death of a member of a friend's family

G. Letters of apology or explanation
1. For not returning a book at the proper time
2. For neglect in answering a letter
3. For not keeping an appointment
4. For poor penmanship

H. Letters about animals
1. A dog
2. A rabbit
3. A pony
4. A canary or other bird
5. A cat or kitten
6. Other pets
7. Horses
8. Cattle
9. Hogs
10. Sheep
11. Chickens
12. Bees
13. Alligators
14. Pheasants
15. Ground hogs
16. Snakes
17. Deer
18. Porcupine

I. Letters of request
1. Asking some one to make a talk or address
2. Asking to borrow something
3. Inquiring about a book or an article
4. Asking where to get something such as a dress or pattern
5. Inquiring about proper food for a pet
6. Asking mother's permission to stay with a friend
7. Asking some one to come back to school

8. Asking a favor
9. Asking for information
10. Asking to be remembered to some one
11. Asking a friend to write

K. Letters about school
1. Studies in school
2. Fun or play in school or on the playground
3. An experiment or exercise in any subject
4. A school project or problem
5. A play, assembly, program, exhibit, or contest
6. Extra-curricular activities, including such things as games, newspaper work, Red Cross sales
7. Examinations or tests
8. School marks or grades
9. Vacations
10. Opening or closing of school
11. New equipment and apparatus
12. Attendance or enrollment
13. A school party or picnic
14. Description of school or playground
15. Teacher or pupils
16. Honor roll

L. Informal notes and letters of invitations, acceptances, etc.
1. Inviting a friend to visit the home or school
2. Accepting an invitation
3. Declining an invitation
4. Inviting some one to go to a show or game

M. Letters about the weather
1. Snow
2. Rain
3. Storms
4. Heat
5. Cold
6. Hail
7. Wind
8. Good weather

N. Letters of encouragement and inspiration
1. To win contests (essay, music, athletic, etc.)
2. To win a game
3. To win a prize
4. To fight on in a crisis
5. To carry on in the face of difficulties

designated, the maximum number of social situations would be indicated by the product of 18 by 150 or 2,700. It is recognized, however, that some of the specific types of letter, such as encouragement to win a prize, might never be written to all the different recipients enumerated here. On the other hand, there are many types of letters which may have been omitted from this list and many others which were not included in this collection, which would appear if a larger collection of letters was read. These specific letter situations are presented as a tentative list in the hope that they may be useful to teachers in suggesting more inviting situations for letter writing in the school. If some of these situations appeal to children, the value of the list is assured. If by reading this list a child decides that he should write a letter, for example, to his grandmother who is lonely or to a friend congratulating him upon a victory, the work of compilation has been well worth while.

SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

Children of the fourth, fifth, and sixth grade levels wrote thirteen types of social letters to eighteen different classes of recipients. A letter usually contained more than one type of thing; very often two or three general items were included. For example, a letter might contain a *request, information about a party, and a statement about the weather.* Letters were written frequently relative to *activities and experiences of life,* about *objects,* about

school, concerning *animals,* and concerning the *weather.* There was dearth of letters of *condolence, encouragement, greeting, and congratulation.*

This was a fact-finding investigation planned to determine the situations in which children write letters. These situations should be useful in teaching letter writing. It is important that these data be interpreted in the light of their deficiencies. Teachers should help the child to understand the purposes of letter writing. There should be created in the child a desire to write the letters which are called for in different life situations. The child should be trained to be sensitive to the crucial and delicate situations of life. Training should be provided which will make the child self-reliant in expressing the thoughts and emotions appropriate to various occasions. In short, it is hoped that these data will lead, in the first place, to finer attitudes and loftier ideals relative to the situations in which letters should be written, and secondly, to greater skill and better habits in handling the mechanics of expression in letter writing and in other phases of English composition.

DEFINITION AND CLASSIFICATION OF SURVEYS

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There is not agreement as to what constitutes an educational survey. This has led to confusion in discussion and treatment of the subject. It is the purpose of this study to present a definition and classification of surveys. It is hoped that this definition and classification may assist somewhat to eliminate the confusion that exists in connection with surveys and the survey movement.

The general meaning of survey is quite broad and would include any study in which status is analyzed. Under this concept a census is a survey. Likewise, determination of the reading interests of first grade children would be classified under this heading. In brief, the general meaning of survey is so inclusive that a large proportion of all the studies that have been made in the field of education might be classified as surveys.

References to the survey movement in education, however, make it quite clear that the movement is considered distinctive. Survey is not used as a blanket term to cover studies as varied as are the types suggested in the preceding paragraph. It seems clear that survey in education has come to hold a meaning more specialized than the general one described above. To arrive at a clear concept of what is this specialized meaning, the writer examined a large number of studies generally recognized to be surveys and attempted to define their peculiar characteristics. This examination led to the conclusion that a study, to be classified as a product of the modern survey movement, should have four characteristics.

Characteristics of Surveys

1. Present or proposed practices or programs are questioned.
2. A comprehensive study and evaluation is made of the status of all factors relating to the practices or programs questioned.
3. Both immediate and future needs are stated as they are indicated by the status study and research findings.
4. Practices or programs are outlined to meet these needs.

Surveys may be classified in a number of ways, as for example: scope, comprehensive or limited; agency, outside or internal. The following classification has proved most helpful to the writer. Brief comments will be made about each type of survey.

Classification of Surveys

I. Administrative Unit Surveys

(All surveys which are made under the authority of an administrative unit are placed under this heading. Such surveys are supplementary to regular administrative procedures and when completed the administrative organization can undertake to carry out the recommendations.)

A. National

(The recent study of Federal Relations to Education is a comprehensive survey of the relations of the Federal Government to education. Three national surveys of limited scope have been undertaken within the past few years: the National Survey of Secondary Education, the National Survey of the Education of Teachers, and the National Survey of School Finance. The Survey of Negro Colleges and Universities completed in 1929 by Arthur J. Klein, then with the Bureau of Education, also is of this type.)

B. State

(The first modern state survey was of Vermont in 1914 by the Carnegie Corporation. To date, twenty states have had comprehensive surveys, three having had two surveys. The United States Office of Education and the General Education Board have been most active in making these surveys. In addition to comprehensive surveys many limited studies have been made, for example, Teacher Training in South Carolina, School Buildings and Grounds in Delaware, etc.)

C. Territories and Outlying Possessions

(Comprehensive surveys have been made of the following territories and outlying possessions: Philippine Islands, Virgin Islands, Panama Canal Zone, Hawaii, and Porto Rico. The most recent of these surveys was of the Panama Canal Zone by the Division of Field Studies of Teachers College, Columbia University.)

D. City and County

(More than two hundred city school surveys have been published since 1910 when the modern movement started with the Boise survey. Both comprehensive and limited surveys are included in this number. The number of city surveys which have not been published cannot be estimated, but undoubtedly it is large. The Division of Field Studies of Teachers College, Columbia University, has been the outstanding agency in conducting these surveys. This Division just completed a survey of the Chicago Public Schools. The number of county surveys which have been made is not available, but it is large. State departments of education have used surveys very widely to discover the needs in individual counties. For example, the Arkansas State Department of Education conducted approximately thirty during 1930.)

E. University, College, and Professional Schools

(The United States Office of Education has been prominent in the conduct of surveys of higher institutions, having surveyed one or more of the higher institutions of a number of states, for example, Arizona, Arkansas, Iowa, Kansas, Louisiana, Nevada, North Dakota, Oregon, Tennessee, Washington. Most other surveys of this type have been made by individual survey commissions. Leaders in this field are George F. Zook, S. P. Capen, Floyd W. Reeves, John Dale Russell, Arthur J. Klein, George S. Works, and Doak S. Campbell. Recently, a number of junior college surveys have been made, one of the best of these being of Siskiyou County, California.)

F. Affiliated Colleges

(Often groups of colleges which are related through some central agency have been surveyed as a group. Surveys of this type are the Land-Grant College Survey, Survey of Lutheran Colleges, Survey of Colleges of the Disciples of Christ, etc.)

II. Special Problem Survey

(Surveys of special problems made by unofficial organizations are included under this heading. Usually an organization is set up for the sole purpose of making the survey. After the survey is completed the organization ceases to exist and the survey depends for usefulness upon the desire of those who meet the particular problems studied in the survey to follow the survey recommendations.)

A. Professional Education

(Outstanding studies of this type are those of Medical Education, Dental Education, Engineering Education, and Legal Education sponsored by the Carnegie Foundation.)

B. Subject Matter Field

(Outstanding surveys of this type are the Modern Language Study and the Classical Investigations.)

C. Administrative Problem

(The Educational Finance Inquiry is an illustration of this type of survey. In the main, Foundations have encouraged and financed such studies.)

Studies that do not possess the four qualities listed in this article or that cannot be classified under one of the above heads, in the judgment of the writer, should not be called educational surveys. Such studies are the product of some phase of educational advance other than the survey movement.

EDITORIALS

PROFESSOR FROST ABROAD

Dr. Norman Frost is using the year for a first-hand study of European rural schools. It is his plan to visit Denmark, England, Germany, and France and to observe critically the various systems of schools in action.

Dr. Frost is prepared to make his study unusually fruitful. He has been in intimate contact with rural schools for a quarter of a century and the emphasis of his thought has been for their improvement.

Mrs. Frost, Norman Junior, and Sara Ann will be with him throughout the year.

TEACHERS BELONG IN POLITICS

Much blood has been shed, and much agony endured in wresting the right of suffrage from tyrants. But that blood was shed freely, that agony endured unflinchingly, and now we may vote, may use one of democracy's most precious boons, the right to vote, and have that vote counted.

Teachers hear frequently that they should stay out of politics—which arouses the wonder as to who should stay in politics. To intrude one's partisanship upon students not only destroys one's professional integrity, but poisons the streams of our liberty at their source. Our schools must offer no opportunity for the spreading of bigotry or prejudice or partisanship in any form. Children must be trained to form their own opinions, but left to form them. Else democracy is blighted and education becomes a mockery.

Teachers belong in politics. They must train children so that in the end reason rises above passion. They must help to equip children with those attitudes and discernments by which intelligent choices are made. Teachers belong in politics. They must vote rebuking the demagogue, chastising insincerity, punishing the propagandist, endorsing those men and measures whose lives and ends enter into the American ideal.

TERMINOLOGY

Perhaps one of the primary requirements for the development of a profession is its achievement of a nomenclature for its own use. The medical profession has one, the legal profession has one, a high sounding one gleaned from the classics. The educational group is at work on one, but proceeding cautiously. It is finding that the terms which it used caressingly last season are a bit stale and pedantic this. Indeed, one wonders whether an educational term is possible with the permanency of *habeas corpus*. Perhaps our nomenclature will remain a tentative one.

THE NEW BOOKS ON OUR SHELVES

[The reviews, most of them signed, are by appropriate members of the Faculty of GEORGE PEABODY COLLEGE FOR TEACHERS. Our limited space necessitates concise notices—brief, pointed, thoughtful comments, without elaboration.]

Diagnosing Personality and Conduct. By PERCIVAL M. SIMONDS. New York: The Century Co., 1932. Pp. v + 602.

This book gathers together in a convenient fashion for use the various researches on personality studies which have been made in recent years. While methods in this field are not without defects, the book gives one an interesting presentation of the developments to date and of results obtained. J. P.

Training School Course of Study, Kindergarten, First, Second and Third Grades. State Teachers College, Farmville, Virginia. October, 1932. 235 pages.

Special Education. The Handicapped and the Gifted. By the COMMITTEE ON SPECIAL CLASSES. New York: The Century Company, 1931. Pp. xi + 604.

A rather interesting series of compendia presented in such a manner as to be of value to the educated layman. Should prove to be a helpful reference book for junior college students. P. L. B.

Sunny Skies. By SISTER MARY ESTELLE. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932. Pp. x + 421.

A fifth grade reader with a variety of content types. Suited to the grade level and especially to parochial schools of the Catholic church by virtue of interpretations and a portion of the illustrations. In addition to the reading materials there are suggested supplementary readings and a number of lessons in language. U. W. L.

Golden Leaves. By ARTHUR I. GATES and JEAN Y. AYER. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1932. Pp. viii + 472.

A sixth grade reader containing stories under each of the following section headings: Adventures, Folk Tales, Carrying the Mail, For Fun, Our Animal Friends, Make Believe, Deep Sea Stories, and Dreams Come True. Following each story there are listed suggestive supplementary readings, fact and thought questions and possible projects. The book is attractive in form and the material is well adapted. U. W. L.

College Prolongs Infancy. By HORACE M. KALLEN. New York: The John Day Company. 1932. Pp. 28.

An interesting, though thoroughly subjective analysis of certain limitations in the curricula and administrative policies of most of our secondary schools and colleges. The philosophies are in no way new, and the reasoning, strictly inductive, is dangerously weak in places due to apparently unwarranted generalizations from limited data. P. L. B.

Litterature Enfantine et Collaboration Internationale Geneve: Bureau International D'Education. 1932. Pp. 238.

This catalogue gives, I believe, the only lists of children's books of all nations in existence. There is a brief description of each book. As one would expect, however, there are many astonishing omissions. R. B.

The Operation and Effects of a Single Salary Schedule. By ROSEWELL PAGE BOWLES. New York: Columbia University, 1932. Pp. viii + 140.

This is a very valuable study. The many advantages of a single salary schedule are determined. The study shows that one of the most significant effects of a single salary schedule is that teachers are encouraged to take additional training while in service. D. H. C.

An Arithmetic for Teachers. By WILLIAM F. ROANTREE and MARY S. TAYLOR. New York: The Macmillan Company. 1932. Pp. x + 523.

This revised edition of An Arithmetic for Teachers warrants a place in every elementary school teacher's library. It is a decided improvement over the 1925 edition which was very satisfactory. The most valuable feature of the book is that each chapter treats of the teacher's knowledge of arithmetic along with the methods of teaching arithmetic. D. H. C.

Principles of Mental Development. By RAYMOND HOLDER WHEELER and FRANCIS THEODORE PERKINS, 1932. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company. xxvi + 529 Pp.

This volume is intended for use as a textbook in educational psychology and is written from the configurational or Gestalt point of view that stresses wholes, unities, or meaning as opposed to more repetition or practice on meaningless elements. Applications to special school subjects are made as well as consideration of more general principles established experimentally, or inferred from experimental work. While the book is made to conform to this special view point, it gives a large outlook upon experimental work and resulting hypotheses and is very clearly written. J. P.

A Study of the Effects of the Teacher Tenure Law in New Jersey. By RALEIGH W. HOLMSTEDT. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. Pp. ix + 111.

This study cites evidence that the New Jersey tenure law has had some effect in stabilizing the teaching staff of the state, although the law has not reduced the amount of dismissal to a marked degree. D. H. C.

The Curriculum of the Special Class. By WILLIAM B. FEATHERSTONE, 1932. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. Pp. 157.

All careful students of the curriculum and of school provision for children with limited mental power will find this study of value. H. L. C.

The Junior College Library. By ERMINE STONE. Chicago: American Library Association. 1932. Pp. xi + 98.

This is a practical handbook that should be helpful both to junior college administrators and librarians. D. S. C.

First Experiences with Literature. By ALICE DALGLIESH. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons, 1932. Pp. xviii + 162.

A thoroughly stimulating and thoughtful little book giving in condensed form perhaps all we now know of young people and literature. B. R.

The Improvement of College Worship. By PAUL N. ELBIN. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. Pp. vii + 154.

A careful study of current practices of worship in colleges through survey and philosophical methods of research. The purpose of the study was threefold: (1) to determine present practice; (2) to suggest methods of improvement of chapel services; and, (3) to prepare materials suited for use in such exercises. The study will be of interest to all concerned with this problem and especially to those who have responsibility in the administration of such services. U. W. L.

Pan Chao—The Foremost Woman Scholar of China. By NANCY LEE SWANN. New York: The Century Company, 1932. Pp. 179.

An interesting book about the most eminent female character of culture in Chinese history prior to the 19th Century. Pan Chao was an instructress to the Empress in the dynasty of Han, one of the most brilliant of Chinese history. Pan Chao holds the distinction of being the first philosopher to make a complete statement of feminine Ethics. The book contains brief treatments of that age and the literature of that day. U. W. L.

Indices of Supply and Demand of Teachers in Minnesota. By ALFRED VICTOR OVERN. Minneapolis: The University of Minnesota Press, 1932. Pp. v + 253.

A careful and intimate study of the various phases of the problem of supply and demand of teachers in the schools of Minnesota.

These United States—and How They Come To Be. By GERTRUDE HARTMAN. New York: Macmillan Co., 1932. Pp. v + 335.

This is for the layman, young or old. An unusually interesting and satisfying account of the development of our country. But at that the illustrations perhaps compose the book's chief value.

Essentials of Education. By GEORGE HENRY MARTIN and JOSEPH ASBURY PITMAN. Boston: The Gorham Press, 1932. Pp. 2 + 217.

This is a posthumous publication of an evaluation of the various elements of education, written with intelligence, conviction, and fair literary power. The first section of the book is a biography by President J. A. Pitman of the author, George Henry Martin, Secretary Massachusetts Board of Education from 1905 to 1917.

An Orientation in Educational Psychology. By DONALD W. MILLER. Boston: Richard G. Badger, 1932. Pp. 234.

This is a venture in a new field and represents a point of view that is probably worth serious consideration. However, the reviewer questions whether there is enough time in the curriculum questions for a student to take an orientation course to each field of study which he pursues. But this should not be considered as an indictment of the thoroughness of this work. Probably the most attractive feature of the book is the chapter devoted to the men who have contributed to the literature in educational psychology and the very extensive bibliography on the subject at the end of the book. D. H. C.

A Unit History of the United States. By WILLIAM A. HAMM, HENRY ELDRIDGE BOURNE and ELBERT JAY BENTON. New York: D. C. Heath and Co., 1932. Pp.lxiv + 845.

The author does not follow the unit idea very well even though the book is entitled A Unit History of the United States. The development of our Government is discussed under three different units. Unit six is entitled sectionalism, but slavery is not included in the subheads. The maps and illustrations are good. A clear cut outline of the most important events in the history of the United States is given. W. H. Y.

Man's Great Adventure. By EDWIN W. PAHLOW. New York: Ginn and Company, 1932. Pp. xxxviii + 854.

The author attempts to give the story of man from the earliest times to the present. The illustrations are outstanding. The chapter headings are stated in a way to attract the child. It is the most attractively written book on world history I have read. W. H. Y.

Clarifying the Teacher's Problems. By ARTHUR S. GIST. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1932. Pp. xiv + 312.

A book which faces the general scope of problems of classroom procedures in connection with the different subject matter fields in elementary education. There are also six chapters covering the following topics: Teacher's Schools, Functions of Elementary Education, Creative Education, Classroom Management, Recitations, and Measurement of Achievement and Ability. Each chapter contains helps to study with Preview and Problem questions as well as supplementary reading lists. U. W. L.

Higher Education for Negroes in Kentucky. By OSCAR F. GALLOWAY. Lexington: University of Kentucky. Pp. 132.

A study of the four institutions of higher education for negroes in Kentucky, surveying them from the standpoint of their curricula, student bodies, faculties, physical plants and finances. Recommendations are made in the light of results of the analysis. U. W. L.

Teaching Procedures. By WILLIAM CARL RUEDIGER. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., Pp. xiv + 470.

This book is a thorough work on the methodology of instruction in keeping with modern thought. It deals with the fundamental procedures, illustrating them by the introduction of subject matter from the different content fields. A helpful book for teachers or in methods courses. U. W. L.

Prevention of Automobile Accidents. By VICTOR W. PAGE. The Normal W. Henley Publishing Co., New York, 1932. Pp. xvi + 172.

A thoughtful and explicit study of the technique of driving an automobile safely and sanely.

Perseverance, Loyalty, and Ambition—Guideposts to Character. By GEORGE W. GERWIG. New York: American Book Company, 1932. Pp. vi+ 89; vi + 81; vi + 90.

A series of books under the general title "Guideposts to Character" containing materials and suggestions for schoolroom activities designed to develop the personal characteristics indicated. Each book contains material for a year's lessons related to the one trait designated by the individual book title. The materials are selected from the lives of heroes, poems, and famous stories on the basis of their appeal to the emotional nature of the pupil. The series is suited to later Intermediate and Junior High School grades. U. W. L.

Readings in Vocational Education. By NICHOLAS RICCIARDI and IRA W. KIBBY. New York: The Century Co., 1932. Pp. v + 570.

Designed for those interested in the secondary education field, this book "reviews the literature of industrial and trade education and provides the reader with selected excerpts from that field of vocational education." T. T. L.

Variability in Continuation School Populations. By ANTHONY M. GOLDBERGER. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 1931. Pp. viii + 52.

A study dealing with the preparations of child workers, the fact of variability, the causes of variability, and the results of variability. Among the interesting findings of this investigation it is noted that children who work in factories have, on the average, lower I. Q.'s than those employed in stores and offices; also that children who work in factories are, on the average, not so far advanced in school grades as those who work in stores and offices. T. T. L.

A Pupil's Workbook in Occupation. By ARTHUR DONENEAU. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932. Pp. iv + 116.

Designed for use with the author's textbooks "Occupations through Problems," this workbook was prepared to "facilitate the use of the problem method in the field of occupations and to economize time." T. T. L.

The Story of Our Republic. By IRVING P. FOOTE. World Book Company, New York, 1932. Pp. xi + 434.

Although logical and chronological in its presentation, the book is psychological in its approach to the beginner of United States history. The physical and mechanical appearance of the book will find favor immediately with the beginner in history. The book is teachable. It is written in a language known to beginners and yet a language not unknown to historians. This book is the most beautifully and attractively illustrated of its kind. The richness of color in illustration will undoubtedly present the beginner with a vividness of impression. In short *The Story of Our Republic* is just what the American elementary school has been awaiting. It should be received with open arms. D. H. C.

Bulletin of the School of Education. Indiana University, Efficiency in College Management. By JOHN DALE RUSSELL. Indiana: Bureau of Cooperative Research, Indiana University School of Education. 1931. Pp. 143.

A compact study of the various phases of the college management situation, with some lucid suggestions for improvement.

My Subtraction Drill Book and *My Addition Drill Book.* By GUY M. WILSON. New York: Macmillan Company. 1932. Pp. vi, 48; vi, 56.

In view of the fact that a large part of the experimental evidence favors subtractive subtraction and the borrowing procedure *My Subtraction Drill Book* is quite timely. For *My Addition Drill Book*, it is claimed that 100% results are possible for 95% of school pupils, with a decrease in time expenditure. D. H. C.

Rating School Pupils. By CHARLES RUSSELL. New York: Columbia University. 1932. Pp. 74.

This is a valuable piece of work. The author brings together in a single volume the best that has been written and said on the problem. The chapters on "Finding a Standard for Rating," and "The Measurement of Effort," are unusually well done. Some new ideas and points of view are introduced into the latter chapter. D. H. C.

The Administration of the School Health Program. By THE WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCE. New York: The Century Co. 1932. Pp. xi + 41.

A report of a sub-committee of the White House Conference on the Administration of the School Health Program. It includes an outline of the actual administering of a school health program. Consideration is given to organization, personnel, and cost. A. B. P.

Southern Forests. By D. PRISCILLA EDGERTON. New York: Rand McNally & Company, 1930. Pp. xii + 308.

A carefully planned little textbook for use in the grades, rich in subject matter and fine illustrations, and in helps for the teacher. F. R. B.

Vocational Guidance. By WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCE ON CHILD HEALTH AND PROTECTION. New York: The Century Company, 1932. Pp. xxiii + 396.

The result of an extensive survey by questionnaire, this report of the Subcommittee on Vocational Guidance of the Committee on Vocational Guidance and Child Labor of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection presents a study of the Vocational Guidance movement in the U. S. Of particular note in the many phases of the subject covered is the up-to-date bibliography of occupational pamphlets. This report should prove of particular help to workers in the field of Guidance. T. T. L.

Music—of Many Lands and Peoples. Edited by OSBOURNE MCCONATHY, JOHN W. BEATTIE, and RUSSELL V. MORGAN. New York: Silver, Burdett and Co., 1932. Pp. iii + 268.

This, the junior high school book of the Music Hour Series, maintains the high standard set by the earlier volumes of this series. While there is a wealth of well-known music, fully one-half is new to school use. It is all good and in excellent taste. The new material is a welcome addition to the junior high chorus repertoire. It can be used either as a basic or supplementary text. J. V.

The School Health Program. By THE WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCE. New York: The Century Co., 1932.

Summarized reports of twenty-four subcommittees presenting a composite view of provisions for the health and protection of school children. It is prefaced by a discussion of "A Philosophy of Education," by W. H. Kilpatrick, and includes sections on the school plant; Health, Physical, and Safety Education; and Medical, Dental, Nursing, and Nutrition services. A. B. P.

School Library Yearbook, Number Five. Compiled by The School Libraries Committee of the American Library Association. Chicago: American Library Association. 1932. Pp. x + 353.

An outstanding volume in this useful series. Part I contains tentative standards for elementary school libraries, an interpretation and elaboration of the standards of the American Association of Teachers Colleges for teachers college libraries, and the Southern Association standards for high school libraries. Part II covers, chiefly in the form of scientific studies, several important aspects of school library work concerning which little reliable information has heretofore been available: the functions, aims, and activities of the junior high school library; school library budgets; the integration of library instruction with high school social science.

As usual, there is a comprehensive bibliography of school library publications, the dates covered being July, 1928, to June, 1932. A directory of state school library agencies and supervisors, and of school librarians members of the A. L. A. completes the volume.

This publication is packed with significant information for school administrators, librarians, and instructors in school administration and in library science. It should be on the reference shelves of every teachers college library. L. F. F.

The World We Live In. By LOUIS WEINBERG, ZENOS E. SCOTT and EVELYN T. HOLSTON. New York: D. C. Heath and Company, 1932. Pp. xi + 266.

An introduction to the social studies for the fourth and fifth grades. After a general view of the world as a whole and of men "working together," the topics of food, shelter, clothing, transportation and communication are treated. A definite and quite successful effort is made to blend geography, history and civics. The vocabulary is a little difficult for these grades, but the book will be found useful, particularly by good teachers. N. F.

Fundamentals in Physical Education. By RUTH B. GLASGOW. Philadelphia: Lea and Febiger, 1932. Pp. vii + 143.

The presentation of selected fundamentals is a helpful one for teachers of theory and practical work. This text stresses information but includes suggestions for activities. D. T.

Character Education Through Physical Education. By JAY B. NASH. New York: A. S. Barnes & Company, 1932. Pp. x + 315.

This is a symposium of material by leaders in the field. The greater part of the book is concerned with theory, but the latter chapters present some very practical solutions for common problems. D. T.

The Physical Growth of Boys. By DOTT EARL ZOOK. Chicago: American Medical Association, 1932. Pp. 86.

An account of progress made in the field of physical measurements. Interesting but yet preliminary. D. T.

Methods and Techniques Used in Surveying Health and Physical Education in City Schools. By ELWOOD C. DAVIS. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. Pp. vii + 162.

An analysis and critique of the techniques of health and physical education surveys: historical and objective. R. L. H.

Plays—Dramatization by Sixth Grade Children. By EMILY ANN BARNES and BESS M. Young. New York: Columbia University, 1932. Pp. xxvi + 218.

This group of dramatizations offers many suggestions to a teacher for correlating materials in a unit of work. The introduction gives valuable aids for the general organization, the costuming of the production and the making of the scenery. The illustrations are attractive. D. T.

New York School Centers and Their Community Policy. By C. A. PERRY and MARGUERITA P. WILLIAMS. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1931. Pp. 78.

A clear presentation of current practice in New York, and an explanation of the development of this movement. This booklet is both stimulating and helpful for all concerned with the wider use of the school plant. N. F.

The Opportunity Schools of South Carolina. By WILLIAM S. GRAY, WIL LOU GRAY, and J. W. TILTON. New York: American Association for Adult Education, 1932. Pp. 141.

A quantitative treatment of the results of short course schools for adults. This study has been made carefully, and the results are treated conservatively. It is of interest to all school administrators and social workers, as a bit of definite evidence in a field marked by many and diverse opinions. N. F.

Pleasant Lands. By ARTHUR I. GATES AND JEAN Y. AYER. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932. Pp. viii + 472.

This is the fifth reader of the Work-Play series. It, like the other books of the series, is carefully graded and contains excellent suggestive study aids. The material includes many of the old favorites, e. g., Hawthorne, but the greater part of it is more modern and less familiar. N. F.

Out of Doors. By PAUL B. MANN and GEORGE T. HASTINGS. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1932. Pp. x + 448.

An excellent nature study handbook for upper grades and junior high school. The presentation is interesting, and the information is exact. Much good material is not in this book, of course, but it is difficult to find fault with what is there, and the general outline is quite comprehensive. N. F.

Practical Arithmetic. By GEORGE H. VAN TUYL. New York: American Book Company, 1932. Pp. xxiv + 455.

An enlarged course in business arithmetic which attempts to provide a thorough knowledge of the principles governing business calculations, together with a reasonable degree of skill in the use of such principles. D. H. C.

Arithmetic Workbook. Number Two. By CLIFFORD B. UPTON. New York: American Book Company, 1932. Pp. 160.

The exercises contained in this workbook have been scientifically constructed so as to provide a properly distributed drill on all the fundamental number combinations, with ample repetition of those recognized as most difficult. D. H. C.

A Child's Book of the Teeth. By HARRISON WADER FERGUSON, 1932. New York: World Book Company. Pp. vi + 106.

Excellent for 4, 5, 6 grades. Material to be correlated with related topics as they appear naturally in routine class work. Illustrations very good. Below 4th grade, book best as teachers' reference. Material too complicated for K, 1, 2, 3 grades. M. L. T.

The Organization and Activities of the National Education Association. By ERWIN S. SELLE. New York: Columbia University, 1932. Pp. vii + 180.

A very interesting study of the national organization for teachers. The author presents his findings and interpretations in a scholarly and unbiased fashion. It should be read thoughtfully by every teacher. W. D. C.

The Wild Boy of Aveyron. By JEAN-MARC. GASPARD ITARD (tr. by GEORGE and MURIEL HUMPHREY. Introduction by GEORGE HUMPHREY.) New York: The Century Company, 1932. Pp. v + 104.

This is Itard's own account of the "wild boy" whom he attempted, with but small success, through a period of five years to train, and to whom he said regretfully one day: "since my labors are wasted and your efforts fruitless, take again the road to your forest and the taste of your primitive life," etc. The Introduction by the translators and the Foreword by the author give the setting of the story. The wild boy died in 1828, at about forty years of age. Several other cases like this one were known even earlier than 1800, when Itard's training of the boy began. J. P.

Jobs for the College Graduate in Science. By EDWARD J. V. K. MENGE. New York: The Bruce Publishing Company, 1932. Pp. viii + 175.

A very timely analysis of opportunities in mathematics, biology, physics, chemistry, geology and geography, medicine, and engineering. Information predominates over advice. H. A. W.

The Child and Play. By JAMES EDWARD ROGERS. New York: The Century Company, 1932. Pp. 205.

A splendid book for all play leaders to read. An excellent reference book of the latest information available on the subject of play for children. A. D. B.

Modern Junior Mathematics. By WALTER W. HART. New York: D. C. Heath and Company, 1931. Books One, Two and Three.

This series follows the recommendations of the National Committee and procedure tested by experience. The presentation is inductive and a sufficient number of problems is included to provide ample practice. An outstanding feature is provision for minimum, average, and maximum assignments, denoted by X, Y, and Z sections. Distributed practice is found in mastery tests and practice exercises. The series is well adapted to use in junior high schools.

Normal Youth and Its Everyday Problems. By DOUGLAS A. THORN. New York: D. Appleton and Company. Pp. xv + 367.

This book, written by a physician and psychiatrist of wide experience, is designed especially "to be helpful to parents, teachers, nurses, camp directors and counselors, leaders of recreation groups, and others interested in the training and development of youth." It is especially concerned with development through the adolescent period. Sex problems and other important aspects of this period of life are treated frankly and sanely. Adolescents may read the book with profit, learning thereby to understand changes and tendencies that are puzzling and disturbing to themselves. J. P.

Motor Abilities of Deaf Children. By JOHN A. LONG. New York City: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. Pp. iii + 67.

This is a doctoral dissertation, the experiments and tests involved having been designed to compare certain motor abilities of deaf persons with those of normal persons. Contrary to a view that is current among those who have not kept in touch with recent experimental psychology, the results show no significant differences, except that the blind are deficient in the case of "the sense of balance." The author holds these findings to be important because the deaf have often been discriminated against in the selection of persons for work involving motor skills, due to an imperfect knowledge of their abilities in this regard. It is suggested that a survey of the field of industry be made to ascertain the types of employment in which the deaf will suffer no handicap; and that the deaf be encouraged to enter these activities and compete with seeing persons. At present possible openings for the deaf are too limited. J. P.

Body Mechanics: Education and Practice. By WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCE ON CHILD HEALTH AND PROTECTION. New York: The Century Company, 1932. Pp. xi + 176.

This book can be recommended to all play leaders, and teachers of children. Suggested programs are offered for corrective exercises and physical exercises. It is to be regretted that the value of rhythmics and play movements were omitted or some mention made of their application to correct faulty posture. A. D. B.

How to Get a Position in School or College. By GEORGE W. COX and W. J. JONES. Memphis, Tenn: Southern Teachers' Agency, 1932. Pp. 98.

This book explains rather adequately the various conditions and phases of applying for employment as teacher. It could be read with profit by all who so apply. A. L. C.

Robert Koch. By GRACE T. HALLOCK and C. E. TURNER. New York: Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, 1932.

One of the series of *Health Heroes.* It shows how Koch, the discoverer of the tuberculosis bacillus, overcame hardships and difficulties to make a real contribution to the physical welfare of humanity. N. F.

Modern English. Book One, Two, and Three. By HENRY P. EMERSON, IDA C. BENDER and BLANCHE JENNINGS THOMPSON. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932. Pp. v + 406.

This revision of *Modern English* emphasizes the preservation of the basal material of the original books and the addition of much of the more informal and of the activity material, in accordance with needs, interests, and methods of modern teaching. F. G. J.

Housing and Living Conditions of Women Students. By CAROLINE GROTE. New York: Columbia University, 1932. Pp. vii + 106.

A presentation of the evolving aspects of housing students and its effect upon health, scholarship and social development. The conclusions are drawn from a rather limited number of records which reasonably substantiate what was formerly only opinion. I. Z. C.

My Progress Book in Arithmetic, No. 1, No. 4, and No. 6. By ELENOR M. JOHNSON. Columbus, Ohio: American Education Press, Inc. Pp. 72 in each.

These arithmetic books provide tests for diagnosing the individual arithmetic abilities of pupils, purposeful seatwork, and supplementary reading material. D. H. C.

Survey Field Book for the Analysis of a High School Building. By N. L. ENGLEHARDT. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931. Pp. 45.

This is a book of blank forms for checking a High School plant. It is especially designed for school building surveys to assure that the field workers secure the essential data. R. L. H.

Survey Data Book for Public School Janitorial-Engineering Service. By ENGLEHARDT, REEVES and WOMRATH. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. Pp. 75.

This is a book of blank forms for checking the janitorial staff and janitorial service of a school. It will be found especially valuable for school administrators as well as members of a survey staff in checking school plant operations. R. L. H.

Experience in English Composition and Literature. Francis W. Parker School. Studies in Education, Chicago. Pp. 378.

A well written presentation of the work of this experimental school in the teaching of English. The story is told by grades, with excellent longitudinal presentation of such topics as the "Writing of Poetry." The book abounds in interesting examples of pupils' work, and stimulating discussion of the objectives sought and the procedures followed. The annotated book list is distinctly helpful. N. F.

Arithmetic Workbook: Numbers Three and Number Four. By CLIFFORD B. UPTON. New York: American Book Company.

These workbooks cover the formal aspects of arithmetic. The amount of drill provided is unusually great, and remedial work is so arranged that it can be used repeatedly. The work in problem solving is particularly well presented. N. F.

Judy's Ocean Voyage. By DORIS BERNSTEIN. New York: American Book Company, 1932. Pp. 160.

A supplementary reader for second or third grade. A great deal of interesting information about ocean travel is worked into the story very skillfully. The book should prove stimulating and helpful for an activity unit, though no suggestion or specific aids are provided for such use. N. F.

John and Jean. By ELOISE DAVIS PICKARD and GLADYS SIMPSON. New York: American Book Company, 1932. Pp. 95.

A supplementary reader for the first grade. The stories are in three groups: for autumn, winter, and spring respectively. Illustrations are abundant, and in color. The vocabulary is very carefully selected. N. F.

Understanding Advertising. By RAYMOND HAWLEY and JAMES BARTON ZABIN. New York: Gregg Publishing Company, 1931. Pp. v + 150.

A rather practical, suggestive handbook for those interested in preparing advertisements. P. L. B.

Deutsche Fibel. By Otto Koischwitz. New York: F. S. Crofts and Co., 1932. Pp. x + 131.

This is a modern first German reader, intended to be used as early as the second week of instruction. Its author seems to have applied with remarkable success the principles of textbook construction implied by the Modern Foreign Language Study in its emphasis upon the reading objective. The numerous illustrations of the *Fibel,* many of which are photographs, are well calculated to convey that blending of the medieval and the ultra-modern which is so characteristic of contemporary Germany, and they merely emphasize a freshness and spontaneity which should give this little book a long and useful life in the American classroom. M. L. S.

Standards for High School Teaching. By Charles Everand Reeves. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1932. Pp. v + 558.

A good treatise on methods and techniques in high school teaching. After a discussion of such topics as Physical Conditions, Interest and Attention, Preparatory Activities, the book goes into the fundamental topics of the basic types of teaching—Types of Classroom Procedure, Methods in Special Subjects, and Measuring the Results of Teaching.

J. R.

A Journey to Many Lands. By Williedell Schawe. Yonkers: World Book Company, 1932. Pp. 199.

The fourth of a series of health readers. The skillful blending of interest in geography and health makes this book particularly useful. N. F.

The Expansion of Secondary Education. By I. L. Kandel. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931. Pp. xiv + 544.

The expansion of secondary education is treated in connection with many attributing features of the past, present, and future. These related circumstances make the book much worth while. Outstanding are the expert opinions of fifteen national leaders in education upon the following: (1) the effects of the university and tradition upon the secondary school curriculum; (2) securing social justice in education; (3) what constitutes culture? (4) special schools versus the comprehensive high school; (5) free secondary education for all: (6) lack of both flexibility and provisions for individual differences in present secondary schools; and (7) the danger of or the existence of an intellectual proletariat. R. W. E.

An Experimental Study of the Educational Influence of the Typewriter in the Elementary School Classroom. By Ben D. Wook and Frank N. Freeman. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932. Pp. ix + 214.

A report of extensive experiments to determine the educational influence of the typewriter in the elementary school. The study contains many graphs, charts, and tables to show the results of the use of the typewriter as a device to motivate interest and progress in all elementary school subjects through experimental and control group comparisons.

U. W. L.

Elementary School Life Activities. Vol. I, *All-School Activities.* Vol. II, *Group-Interest Activities.* By F. C. Borgeson. New York: A. S. Barnes and Company, 1931. Vol. I, Pp. xiv + 143. Vol. II, Pp. xiii + 135.

These volumes constitute a statement of current theory and practice in regard to extra-curricular activities at the elementary school level. The data presented show careful study and analysis of existing material. The bibliographies are among the best features of the books. Every elementary school principal will find them helpful.

N. F.

STAGE EQUIPMENT AND DRAPERIES

TIFFIN Scenic Studios
TIFFIN, OHIO
TRADE MARK

CATALOGUE UPON REQUEST

The School and Mental Health. By CLARA BASSETT. New York: The Commonwealth Fund, 1931. Pp. i + 66.

Though this is not a formal report on experimentation, it is written from the experiences gained as Consultant in Psychiatric Social Work, National Committee for Mental Hygiene, and this is far from being theoretical only. It is stimulating, suggestive, well-written. Teachers and parents should read it by all means. P. L. B.

A Mind That Was Different. By DOW THOMPSON. Oklahoma City: Harlow Publishing Co., 1931. Pp. vi + 117.

An autobiographical discussion of introversion—extroversion and their meaning in the field of individual differences. Semi-popular, philosophical, interesting, but with no particular contribution to the general field. P. L. B.

Handbook in the Principles of Education. By JOHN P. WYNNE. Farmville, Virginia: Clarion Publishing Company, 1931. Pp. v + 48.

This handbook is a very brief outline of a possible development of a study of Principles of Education, consisting of questions and references arranged under twenty-two topics, such as "Teaching as a Profession," "Courses of Instruction," "Class Meetings," "Good Order," etc. U. W. L.

Work-Test Book in Physics. By A. W. HURD. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1930. Pp. vi +148.

In order to answer all the questions in this Work-Test Book a student must have studied the textbook references very carefully and also must have handled much of the apparatus mentioned. He should get a very good appreciation of the practical applications of these principles. However, the same amount of study under older methods would probably yield a better and broader appreciation of the whole subject. C. R. F.

Craig

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